DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 065 094 HE 003 255

AUTHOR	Austin, Michael J., Ed.; And Others
TITLE	The Field Consortium: Manpower Development and Training in Social Welfare and Corrections.
INSTITUTION	State Univ. System of Florida, Tallahassee.
SPONS AGENCY	Florida State Dept. of Health and Rehabilitative Services, Tallahassee.; Social and Rehabilitation Service (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
REPORT NO	Monogr-3
PUB DATE	Jun 72
NOTE	125p.
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.65 HC-$6.58
DESCRIPTORS	*Criminology; *Evaluation Needs; *Field Instruction; *Higher Education; Human Services; Manpower Needs; *Social Work; Social Workers

ABSTRACT

In 1970 the State University System of Florida and the Division of Community Colleges inititated a statewide Social Work Education Planning Project. This project is designed to determine the current and projected manpower needs for professional and paraprofessional social work personnel and to assess the extent to which the institutions of higher education in the state are preparing graduates to meet these needs. This monograph is designed to highlight the need for further evaluation of field instruction within the area of social work education. The first section involves a discussion of manpower utilization, including a discussion of the new roles that are being assumed by human service workers from the high school level through graduate level training. The second section provides a program description of the project on delinquency prevention as well as some projections about the future role of social work in the field of corrections. In the third section evaluation is made of the differential staffing pattern utilized in the pilot and in particular focuses on the issues of team work, leadership, and the assumption of new roles in human service delivery. The fourth and final section presents a discussion of criminal justice and social welfare and curricular implications are cited. (HS)

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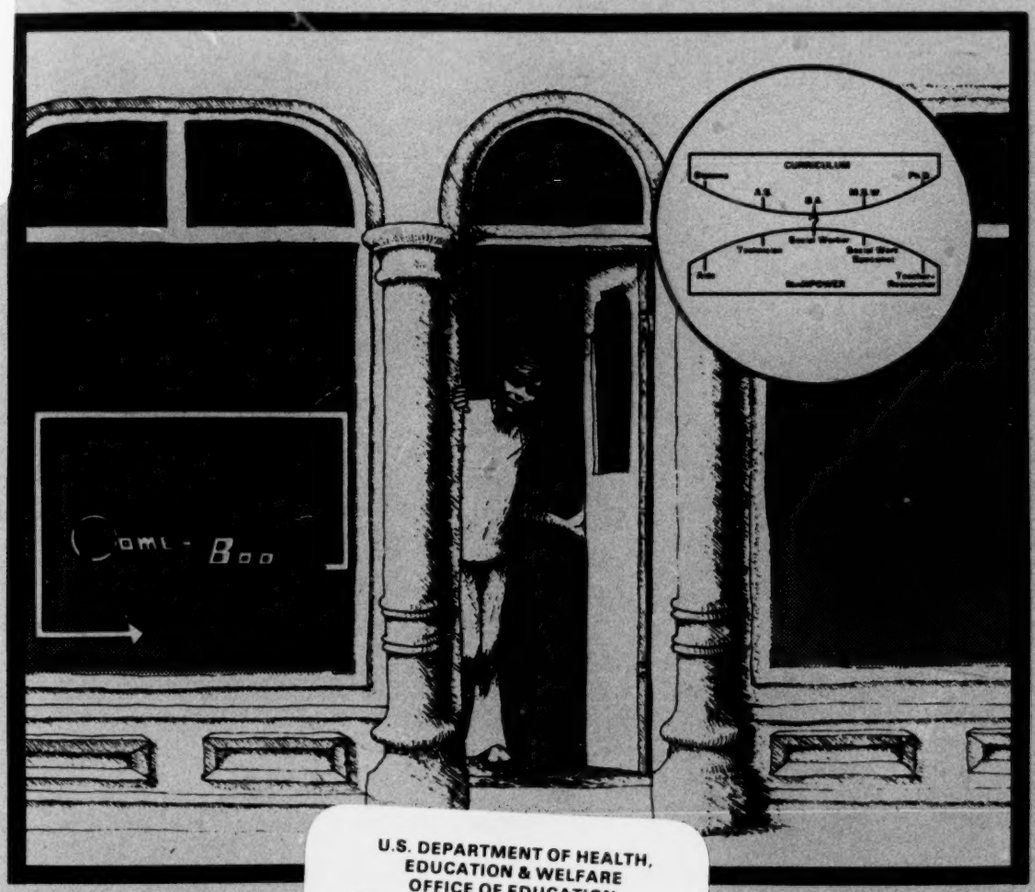
The Field Consortium: Manpower Development and Training in Social Welfare and Corrections



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Collaborative Planning in Higher Education for the Professions-Monograph Series Number 3

State University System of Florida and Division of Community Colleges

THE FIELD CONSORTIUM: MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING IN SOCIAL WELFARE AND CORRECTIONS

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Funded By:

Social and Rehabilitation Service, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
Division of Family Services, Florida Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services

Grant Number: 2490-600

72-7

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PUBLISHED June, 1972
By State University System of Florida
107 West Gaines Street
Tallahassee, Florida

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FROM THE EDITORIAL BOARD

The need for cooperative planning among public and private universities, colleges, community-junior colleges and vocational-technical educational centers has long been recognized. In recent years the increasing complexity of educational problems and the limited fiscal and human resources available to meet them has made such planning on a statewide basis even more essential. The studies, recommendations and final report (*Florida Post-High School Education: A Comprehensive Plan for the 70's*) of the Select Council on Post-High School Education constitute a major contribution in this direction. Two educational conferences called by Governor Reubin O'D. Askew during the past year have provided additional support for cooperative interinstitutional planning at the post-high school level. The first, *An Invitational Conference on Post-Secondary Educational Opportunities for the Disadvantaged,* held at the University of Florida, March 24-25, 1971, was attended by approximately nine hundred educators, agency representatives, legislators and concerned citizens. The Governor's Conference on Post-High School Education, held at the University of South Florida, December 6-7, 1971, was attended by a vast majority of the presidents of public and private universities, colleges and community-junior colleges and the directors of area vocational-technical education centers. It should be noted that each of the above cooperative educational planning endeavors has had the support of the Commissioner of Education, the Chancellor of the State University System, the Director of the Division of Community Colleges, the Director of the Division of Vocational-Technical Education and the heads of most public and private institutions of higher education in the State of Florida.

In order to capitalize on the growing interest in collaborative planning the State University System and the Division of Community Colleges, with the assistance of a federal grant available through the Division of Family Services of the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services, initiated in 1970 a statewide Social Work Education Planning Project. This project, which is reported to be the first of its kind in the nation, has a number of noteworthy features. It is designed to determine as accurately as possible the current and projected manpower needs for professional and paraprofessional social work personnel and to assess the extent to which the institutions of higher education in the state are preparing graduates to meet these needs. In order to assist the project staff, two advisory committees were selected. One consists of representatives of public and private universities, colleges and community-junior colleges, the other is composed of representatives of agencies which employ social work and other human service personnel. Both committees are involved with the pre-service and in-service training requirements necessary to produce qualified manpower for the future.

This volume is the third in a series of publications designed to highlight some of the significant findings generated by the Social Work Education Planning Project. The monograph series also serves as a vehicle to communicate the findings of other research efforts which result from collaborative planning in higher education for other professions. This series, begun with issues relevant to Social Work Education, will be important for Florida and will provide directions for other educational and manpower planning endeavors.

COLLABORATIVE PLANNING IN HIGHER EDUCATION FOR THE PROFESSIONS

MONOGRAPH SERIES

1. *Continuing Education in Social Welfare: School Social Work and the Effective Use of Manpower,* edited by Michael J. Austin, Jeffrey Lickson, and Philip L. Smith, February, 1972.

2. *Curriculum Building for the Continuum in Social Welfare Education,* edited by Michael J. Austin, Travis J. Northcutt, Harold H. Kastner, and Robert O. Turner, June, 1972.

3. *The Field Consortium: Manpower Development and Training in Social Welfare and Corrections,* edited by Michael J. Austin, Edward Kelleher, and Philip L. Smith, June, 1972.

4. *Statewide Career Planning for Health and Welfare,* edited by Michael J. Austin and Philip L. Smith, August, 1972.

INTRODUCTION

This monograph is the third publication in a series sponsored by the Social Work Education Project of the Florida Board of Regents. The findings presented in this monograph were developed from a research and demonstration project in which a storefront delinquency prevention center provided a setting in which to evaluate the differential use of manpower. The Social Work Education Project has involved educators and agency personnel in areas of curriculum planning as well as manpower planning. Other monographs in this series direct themselves to these two planning areas.

This monograph is designed to highlight the need for further evaluation of field instruction. The training of students in human service agencies provides an important link between educational institutions and human service agencies. This particular area of joint training requires a great deal more communication between educators and agency personnel than has existed in the past. For example, how many public agencies have developed advisory committees of educators related to their area of service? And likewise, how many social work or human service educational programs involve agency representatives on an advisory committee?

While there has been an attempt to demonstrate the value of outreach services for a traditional agency like the Juvenile Court, this monograph does not address the very basic and difficult problem of eliminating juvenile delinquency. This social problem continues to plague all personnel in the human services field and the research in this monograph reflects only one approach to delinquency prevention in which individuals are diverted from the Juvenile Court system through the provision of neighborhood social services. While the roots of juvenile delinquency can be found in inadequate housing, poor education, low income, and poor health care, there is still a continuing need to study the relationship between the criminal justice system and the social welfare system.

A research and demonstration project involves the coordination of many agencies as well as individuals. A great deal of appreciation goes to Mr. Edward Kelleher, who coordinated the storefront delinquency prevention center, with the support of the Florida State University School of Social Welfare. Dean Bernhard Scher and Dr. Diane Bernard provided invaluable assistance through the provision of both field instruction expertise as well as graduate student involvement. The following individuals also played a very important role in developing the field consortium and represent three of the institutions of higher education involved in the project: Mr. William Hutchinson (Florida A&M University), Miss Jean Craddock (Florida State University), Mr. Dennis Orthner (Tallahassee Community College), Mr. Tom Stewart (Florida State University), Mr. Ken Katsaris (Tallahassee Community College), Mrs. Victoria Warner

(Florida A&M University), Miss Verona Mitchell (Florida A&M University), and Mrs. Jinni Pankaskie (Florida State University).

It is also important to note the dedication of volunteers and lay citizens who provided direction as members of a grassroots program advisory committee and a great deal of thanks go to the following advisory committee members: Mr. Lester Blakely, Miss Evla Peterson, Miss Shirley Price, Reverend Titus Deas, Mr. Cliff Vaughn, Mr. Chuck Bell, Mrs. Jane Love, and Mr. Robert Hall.

Along with these acknowledgements it is important to highlight the major themes of this monograph. The first section involves a discussion of manpower utilization as new approaches have been developed recently to differentially staffing human service programs. This includes a discussion of the new roles which are being assumed by human service workers from the high school level through graduate level training. In addition, this section identifies some of the recurring issues in field instruction and proposes a new model of field consortium training.

The second section includes a program description of the storefront project on delinquency prevention as well as some projections about the future role of social work in the field of corrections. This section highlights the important role that agencies play in redesigning services and evaluating the future role of human service personnel.

The third section of the monograph focuses on the research findings. Special evaluation is made of the differential staffing pattern utilized in the pilot and in particular focuses on the issues of team work, leadership, and the assumption of new roles in human service delivery. In addition, careful analysis is made of the organizational impact of this pilot project and its implications for the redesign of service delivery systems.

The final section involves a discussion of the two systems of criminal justice and social welfare. Curricular implications are cited as possible future guides for linking the curriculum utilized in the training programs for both systems so that students might develop a broader understanding of social welfare and criminal justice. In addition, the concluding section calls for renewed attention to the problems of juvenile delinquency and in particular to the redesign of existing services.

The changes in service delivery have continuing implications for educational programs. At the same time, changes in educational programs have direct implications for service delivery. This monograph represents yet another effort to surface the need for dialogue between educators and agency personnel as we move into this decade of social change requiring even greater attention to the issues of more effective and efficient human services for those in need.

As with all large scale publishing efforts, special recognition and appreciation goes to our hard-working secretarial staff who survived numerous re-drafts of this monograph as well as the preceding monographs; Mrs. Gail Cameron and Mrs. Sandi Patrick. Special thanks also go to Mrs. Alexis Skelding for her outstanding editorial assistance with all the monographs in this series.

Michael J. Austin, Ph.D.
Director
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PART I

NEW PATTERNS OF FIELD INSTRUCTION AND MANPOWER UTILIZATION

Trends In Manpower Utilization: An Overview

Philip L. Smith

Introduction

A recent publication of the American Public Welfare Association, *Designing Social Service Systems,* begins with this statement—"Often, given mental concepts, programs and structures directed toward the alleviation of poverty and disadvantage are ineffective, inefficient and, in many instances, irrelevant."[1] This statement summarizes the feelings of many professional groups, practitioners, administrators, educators, legislators, clients, and perhaps the public at large about the current state of our social welfare system. As we move further into the decade of the 70's the emphasis seems to be on change—rapid change in many of the institutions, programs and services of the social welfare system. With this change has come an increasing concern about manpower development and utilization issues. As described by Dr. Jean Fine:

> "Effective response of the service delivery system to 1) demands for improved quality and increased quantity of services and 2) a changing knowledge base, compel organizational and institutional change with resulting implications for manpower . . . Broadening of the occupational base and the redesigning of jobs has created and is creating new job types . . . Current developments indicate a trend both to increased

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personnel specialization on the one hand and the emergence of new 'generalist' roles on the other."[2]

Social welfare organizations nationwide are experimenting with new worker types—indigenous and non-indigenous paraprofessionals, the new technicians (graduates of two-year programs in a variety of human service areas) and the undergraduate social welfare major. Consequently, the same organizations are experimenting with new work roles for existing worker types. Federal agencies, most notably the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, are encouraging their state counterparts to formalize structures for manpower planning and development. Consequently, agency staff development units and the personnel systems are receiving increased attention. Several state public welfare departments, such as Utah, South Carolina, and others have contracted with the W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research to analyze and redesign their personnel classification systems. In the southeast the Southern Regional Education Board is conducting several research projects dealing with new roles for social welfare workers and new human services careers.

In the face of such rapid change relative to manpower consideration in social welfare organizations, projections of only a few years ago become relatively meaningless in planning for new services and new personnel. We are all undoubtedly familiar with Arthur Ross' projected estimate of 178,000 vacancies in social welfare agencies by 1975.[3] This statistic tells us little about the type of worker agencies will need to recruit for future programs. Nor does it tell us what curricular changes are indicated for social welfare programming in our institutions of higher education. At one point in our history, we answered questions relative to projected manpower needs in terms of increased programming at the master's level. This is no longer appropriate, even though remnants of this approach seem to hang on in many of our social welfare organizations. The trend, though fading, toward a higher degree of "professionalism" is not only unrealistic but inappropriate. The so-called "manpower revolution" has resulted in an about-face in our attitudes toward the nature of social services and who should provide them. For years human service professionals, especially social workers, have been trying to convince agency administrators, boards, and legislators that we need more master's level personnel to provide social services. We are now reversing this position to say that what we need are more paraprofessionals, technicians, assistants, etc. Nationally, 80 per cent of the services delivered directly to the people are delivered by personnel with less than a master's degree.[4] This percentage is likely to increase over the next several years.

It has become obvious that social welfare organizations will move more into the differential use of manpower in the coming years. If this movement is to realize its fullest potential, agencies must be willing and able to evaluate and redesign their recruitment procedures, their systems

of job classification and examination, and their in-service training programs. Job redesign must occur and realistic career ladders and lattices must be developed.

New Approaches to Manpower Planning

Social welfare organizations have traditionally been staffed according to the old industrial approach of job factoring. Job factoring emphasizes the homogeneous grouping of related or similar job tasks to create job configurations. Whereas this approach may be realistic in an industrial setting, it has numerous shortcomings within the social welfare system. As new worker types are recruited and employed by social welfare organizations, especially the so-called paraprofessional, the application of this approach to manpower utilization often results in the creation of monotonous, repetitive jobs for the less skilled, less educated staff members.

The developmental approach to manpower utilization offers us an alternative. This approach does not depend on existing job configurations, but instead examines the range of human problems addressed by any given social welfare organization, and also takes into consideration the needs of the professions. Jobs, then, are developed according to this conceptual approach. As new worker types move into the agency, the emphasis becomes total job redesign. These two conceptual approaches to manpower utilization are described in greater detail in Section 7 of this monograph.

A growing awareness of the potential contributions of the developmental approach to manpower utilization has sparked the development of several new models which serve as mechanisms for 1) analyzing the manpower needs of a social welfare organization and 2) making management decisions about job design. The W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research is applying the functional job analysis approach to social welfare organizations. The functional job analysis employs a systems approach to manpower utilization by identifying system and subsystem objectives and by reducing work to its simplest form—the task. Each job is consequently analyzed according to a number of criteria, such as the relationship of the task to data, people, and things. Jobs are developed from task groupings.[5]

A second model employing the developmental approach was developed by the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB). The SREB model identifies 12 basic work roles which are considered to be reflective of the range of activity that occurs within the context of service delivery in any social welfare organization. Knowledge, skill and attitudinal components have been developed for each role. Jobs, then, are developed by clustering any given number of these roles into a job configuration.[6]

Robert L. Barker and Thomas L. Briggs, building on the redesign of service delivery, provide us with the most recent and thorough analysis of the team concept. This concept, differentiated from the traditional use of

interdisciplinary teams, emphasizes the use of multi-level social work teams in service delivery. Whereas the emphasis in the interdisciplinary team is on the discipline, the emphasis in the Barker and Briggs approach is on multi-educational levels within the same or similar disciplines. This concept emphasizes the notion that both the quality and quantity of services can be improved through the use of the multi-level team. This approach recognizes the unique competencies that exist and the contributions that can be made to client service by workers at all levels.[7]

It is interesting to note that the increased attention being given to manpower utilization models has occurred simultaneously with the increased use of the new paraprofessional, the new technician, and other new worker types by social welfare organizations. A field test of two of these new approaches, the team concept and the SREB role model, is described in detail in Section 7.

New Worker Types

As the movement toward differential staffing continues in social welfare organizations we begin to see the emergence of new worker types and of new work roles for existing personnel. Most attention has been directed at the so-called "indigenous paraprofessional," however, we are also seeing the emergence of the two-year technician trained to perform in a variety of settings and fields of practice. The undergraduate social welfare major is quickly becoming the new "generalist," and the M.S.W. is experiencing a variety of pressures in shifting to the role of specialist.

The Trend Toward Paraprofessionals

The new paraprofessional movement (as distinguished from the traditional practice of hiring unskilled custodial workers in institutions) in social welfare began in the early 1960's with demonstrations in the fields of mental health and delinquency prevention. The movement was given impetus by the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 and the New Careers Amendment in 1966. Since then some thirty laws have established some 100 grant-in-aid programs that reflect the new careers design.[8]

We now find paraprofessional or new careers workers in various fields within the social welfare system. What many viewed as simply a strategy in the "war on poverty"—habilitate the poor by giving them jobs—has proven to be a partial solution to the problem of manpower shortages in a most dramatic manner. Hopefully, few professionals would argue the demonstrated value of the paraprofessional in health, public welfare, corrections, mental health, and a variety of other fields. The literature is replete with examples of their contributions. A report from the New Careers Development Center notes that indigenous paraprofessional workers increased recruitment for an immunization clinic in an area

formerly worked by public health nurses by over 400 per cent on a per worker basis.[9] Frank Riessman reports that paraprofessionals have been strikingly effective in case finding and in assisting people in making use of services.[10] A report on a Los Angeles vocational rehabilitation center using aides says, "That most of our aides are flexible and can perform a variety of assignments was perhaps the most surprising yet positive feature of their contribution."[11] Similar examples can be found in other fields of practice.

A great deal of concern was generated among the ranks of the professionals with the advent of the paraprofessional movement. While much of this concern must be interpreted as a genuine interest in protecting clientele, assuring high quality service, and in providing adequate supervision and in-service training, some of it can only be considered "turf-protecting" on the part of the professional. Now that many of these issues have been resolved, at least in the minds of many, we need to turn our attention toward increasing opportunities for the paraprofessional worker within our social welfare organizations by building more meaningful staff development programs and more realistic career ladders and lattices. As Frank Riessman and Arthur Pearl observe in describing the New Careers Program: "Careers imply 1) permanence and 2) opportunity for upward mobility."[12]

The New Technicians

Another worker type that is even newer on the scene than the indigenous paraprofessional is the technician. This worker is generally one who has graduated from a two-year community college program in the broadly defined human services area. This person may be from a specialty program in child care, mental health, corrections, retardation, etc., or he may be from a more broadly grounded program that approximates that of the Community Services Technician projected by the Council on Social Work Education.[13] His Associate Degree may carry total transferability to an upper division university (usually an Associate of Arts), or very limited transferability (usually an Associate of Science). His course work will generally include at least two of the following: 1) a general education core; 2) a social service technical core; 3) a supportive social science core; and 4) field training.

Dennis O'Harrow in describing careers open to two-year graduates lists Human Services as one of eight basic career families in public service.[14] The Council on Social Work Education lists 133 operational or developmental two-year programs in community or social services as of July, 1970.[15] This indicates that considerable attention is being directed at the two-year graduate academically, but what about his utilization in the agency sphere? Unfortunately academic programming seems to have outdistanced agency utilization at this point in time. Limited use is being

made of the two-year graduate by most social welfare organizations, though this picture is beginning to change.

In Florida a new job classification has been created in the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services* for a Rehabilitation Technician. The Divisions of Mental Health and Mental Retardation are utilizing a limited number of these new worker types in various phases of their institutional programs. The Division of Family Services has a number of positions for persons with two years of college to work in public assistance payments. With the separation of services from assistance payments, the need for a payments technician may emerge. Preparation for this worker type may take the form of two-year community college programs combining both business administration and human services content. The Division of Corrections is developing plans to set up two-year programs in the human services area for selected prison populations and the Division of Youth Services is discussing the possible utilization of two-year graduates in their group treatment programs for juvenile offenders. These are some of the examples of trends developing in Florida which could be projected nationwide. Since the utilization of the technician is very new and quite limited nationwide, there is a dearth of evaluative research on this new worker type.

The "Generalist" Worker

Another worker type that has been around for a number of years, but that is now coming into prominence is the undergraduate social welfare major (BSW).** Undergraduate programs in social welfare have been in existence for at least thirty to forty years, however, the decade of the 60's saw a most dramatic increase in their numbers. In the ten-year period from 1960 to 1970 undergraduate program membership in the Council on Social Work Education increased in excess of 160 per cent as compared to a graduate increase of only about 20 per cent.[16] Academic program content at the undergraduate level generally consists of a core in the behavioral and social sciences plus a number of basic courses in social welfare organization and methods. For the most part curricula is more general at the undergraduate level than at the two-year community college level. As a result of this approach the undergraduate social welfare major is being viewed more as the new "generalist." He is prepared to either continue his education in a graduate program or to enter the job market in a variety of

*The Department of Health and Rehabilitative services is Florida's umbrella agency which includes the Divisions of Family Services, Mental Health, Mental Retardation, Youth Services, Vocational Rehabilitation, Corrections and Health.

**Most universities do not actually award a Bachelor of Social Work Degree but rather a B.A. or B.S. with a major or minor in social welfare, however for the purposes of this article the undergraduate social welfare major will be referred to as a BSW.

practice fields. Even the professional organization, the National Association of Social Workers, has accepted the BSW into its membership ranks.

Although BSW's have been employed by a variety of social welfare organizations for a number of years, little differentiation has been made between the BSW and the variety of other incoming baccalaureate personnel. Traditionally qualifying exams have been structured to measure general education and the BSW has been given no preference. In-service training programs have generally been the same for both the BSW and the BA from other academic backgrounds and work assignments have been made indiscriminately. The BSW has enjoyed little to no advantage in either selection or promotion.

Because of the lack of recognition of this worker type in the past there is little comparative research on the competencies of the BSW as opposed to the BA from other academic backgrounds. One survey conducted by the Southern Regional Education Board in 1970 indicates that the BSW is generally more productive and requires less supervision than the BA.[17]

It appears that there is now an increasing awareness of the competencies of the BSW. Through the efforts of such organizations as the Southern Regional Education Board and by virtue of new program development in universities, social welfare organizations are taking more notice of this worker type. In their most recent publication on this subject SREB notes:

> "Most agencies no longer regard the baccalaureate-level worker (BSW) as a temporary, untrained worker. Job descriptions are being refined especially for this level of worker, and a few agencies give preferential treatment to them over general college majors such as English majors, psychology majors, and education majors."[18]

In the southeast for example, Tennessee has recently granted a point advantage on their qualifying examination for the BSW, and Florida is now using an examination designed to place a greater emphasis on social work knowledge and practice skills. Consequently more BSW's are being placed higher on employment registers.

The BSW appears to be finding new life in a number of practice fields and by virtue of his preparation as a "generalist" may well become the hub of the social service team as social welfare organizations move more toward differential staffing.

New Specialist Roles for the MSW

With the advent of the new worker types previously described, the Master's Degree holder in social work is faced with the prospect of dramatic role shifts. An intervening factor in this situation has been a growing

movement in many social welfare organizations toward more "hard" services and more social action programs and something of an abandonment of the "one-to-one" clinical treatment model. Many of these organizations have discovered that paraprofessionals and BSW's can deliver "hard" services and perform client advocacy roles better than the traditionally trained MSW caseworker. Charles Grosser of Columbia University points out: "The provision of service by means of a small specially trained professional elite is viable for limited programs. But this method cannot possibly be effective in programs providing massive benefits."[19] Another example of this trend is taken from a *New York Times* article about one year ago which announced the discontinuance of family casework and individual counseling services by the cities' oldest private social agency and their plan to refocus attention on the coordination of community services and client advocacy.[20] The very changes in social welfare programming and service delivery that are surfacing the need for new worker types are, at the same time, causing us to critically reexamine the role of the MSW.

The "manpower revolution" itself is providing direction for projecting new MSW roles. The concerns voiced by many professionals about the paraprofessional movement provide a point of departure. First, the initial questions about supervision merit examination. Traditional supervision which has often taken the form of a "helping relationship" is inappropriate. Supervision must be viewed as a mid-management position embracing the roles of administrator, consultant, and teacher. This is particularly true when considered within the context of total client service as opposed to the traditional form of individual case assignment. Secondly, more emphasis must be placed on preparing the MSW to teach, both within the context of agency staff development and within the growing number of two-year community college programs. As continuing education becomes a viable mechanism to career advancement the phenomenon of shared staff time between agencies and educational institutions takes on a new importance. In addition to these new or at least reconceptualized roles, several other roles become important. With the emphasis on rapid programmatic change in social welfare organizations it becomes imperative for a number of MSW's to be prepared to take on administrative and planning positions.

Obviously for these things to occur both educational institutions and social welfare organizations must recognize the need and move jointly to effect both curricular change and a redesign of agency manpower utilization systems. This is beginning to occur as schools of social work are undergoing rapid changes in curricula with more emphasis on administration, planning, and teaching, while social welfare agencies are actively recruiting MSW's for managerial-planning positions. One notable example is the creation of a social administration sequence at Florida State University, Department of Social Work with the encouragement and support of the State Division of Family Services.

Future Directions

If social welfare organizations are to realize the full potential of the differential use of personnel, several things must happen. These organizations must look to their personnel management systems, their staff development programs, and their capacity for manpower assessment and planning for support. They must also be able to effect a more productive interface with institutions of higher education relative to the preparation of their graduates. As universities come to realize their training function in addition to their educational responsibilities, the old circular argument of education versus training will give way to the more productive approach of joint planning between the university and the agency.

As social welfare organizations recruit and employ new worker types at all levels, they must address several critical problems. The first of these relates to the distribution of work in an organization. As previously described, differential manpower utilization by definition requires the differential assignment of work tasks. These tasks when grouped into job configurations must be satisfying to the workers who perform them, regardless of their educational level. They must also make obvious and measureable contributions to client service. It is imperative that social welfare organizations avoid the creation of monotonous dead-end jobs for less educated personnel. If this problem is to be addressed satisfactorily then social welfare organizations must develop expertise in new techniques of manpower planning. One of these techniques previously mentioned is the functional job analysis approach. The application of this approach guarantees, at least to some extent, a systematic and equitable distribution of work within an organization. Since work is broken down into tasks, and each task is analyzed relative to its relationship to data, to people, and to things, care can be taken to insure satisfying task groupings for all personnel. Quite often in the past the incoming paraprofessional has been saddled with a number of clerical duties which he finds neither satisfying nor directly related to client service. The application of functional job analysis is one approach to preventing this unfortunate circumstance from occurring. Quite often, unsatisfactory work distribution results from a lack of expertise in the techniques of manpower planning and not from a lack of trust of certain worker types.

Another problem confronted by social welfare organizations as they recruit and employ new worker types at all levels is that of the career ladder. A great deal of discussion has been generated around this topic in the past several years and unfortunately also a great deal of rhetoric. In building more viable career ladders and career lattices two organization components take on critical importance – the personnel classification system and the staff development program. Personnel classification systems traditionally reflect leveling by academic degree and quite often do not reflect the nature of work to be performed and the knowledge and skill com-

ponents required to perform that work. Therefore, we often become locked into a "credentials" system. Again, functional job analysis as a new technique in manpower planning offers some solutions. Since jobs composed of task groupings are described in terms of performance standards and training content, a vehicle exists for career advancement which is not specifically tied to an academic credentials system.

If a worker is to have both horizontal and vertical career mobility within the social welfare system then techniques for validating performance and providing required in-service training must be developed. This requires not only a redesign of the personnel classification systems but a reconceptualization of the role and function of staff development. Staff development has traditionally been used within social welfare organizations to introduce new workers into the system and to provide specific kinds of training in terms of new programming. It is imperative to reconceptualize staff development as a vehicle for career advancement. If staff development programs are to perform this function, university support will be needed. This in turn requires institutions of higher education to reconceptualize their role and function in continuing education.

In conclusion, the differential use of manpower by social welfare organizations holds tremendous potential for increasing services to a much broader population. However, if the fullest potential of this movement is to be realized within our social welfare system, social welfare organizations must be prepared to create meaningful career choices for personnel at all levels. These organizations must develop new expertise in manpower planning. New techniques in manpower planning must be applied to personnel classification systems, to staff development programs, and to service programming. At the same time, institutions of higher education must be able to redesign curricula at all levels and to reevaluate and reconceptualize their role in continuing education.

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Issues In Field Instruction

Philip L. Smith and Alexis H. Skelding

Introduction

The purpose of this section is to identify crucial issues in the field instruction component of social work education. It is not an attempt to provide an historical perspective or an overview of field instruction, but rather to identify emerging trends and to make an attempt at conceptualizing this critical part of the educational experience.

The field instruction experience of social work education is generally defined as a process of synthesizing the theoretical knowledge of the classroom with actual practice in an agency work setting. In essence, field work means putting knowledge into practice. Although this is a simple statement of purpose for field instruction, questions can be raised as to how successfully we have ever been able to conceptualize this process. Does field instruction represent the first attempt in social work education to develop beginning competency? In 1941 Florence Hollis wrote an article entitled "A Study of the Casework Performance of Graduates as a Measure of the Effectiveness of Professional Training." In this article Hollis describes a study of casework performance in which the performance of recent social work graduates was measured by analysis of case records. The study indicated that while the recent graduates were helpful and displayed appropriate social work attitude toward clients, their technical skills were still quite limited.[1] The 1959 Curriculum Study used this as a case in point for making the following statement concerning field instruction:

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> It would seem that further study is needed to see whether field work is in a position even under the best of circumstances to help the student achieve all of its postulated goals. Clear awareness and acceptance of the fact that field work should first and foremost be geared to the attainment of educational goals of furthering integration, developing identification with the profession and increasing self-awareness, might lead to the acceptance of the fact that the level of skill attainable by the student through his field experience may fall below that needed for effective service to the client and the agency. Progress might come from seeing field instruction as the most desirable way of helping integrate classroom learning and to develop identification as well as self-awareness. It might come too from skepticality as to whether the level of skill the student develops in the pursuit of these goals reasonably can be expected to be at the level of beginning competence.[2]

This statement implies that field instruction is little more than an indoctrination program. It is now thirteen years later and our conceptualization may not have progressed any further. If field instruction does not produce a beginning level of competence in the student, keeping in mind previous academic preparation for the experience as a precondition, then what is the purpose of professional education? Is it merely to socialize people into the profession? Is it merely to develop their self-awareness? If this is the case then what incentive is there for an agency to participate in such a program or to hire its graduates? Again, this relates to our inability to adequately conceptualize field instruction in the context of both professional education and preparation for work.

This bring us to the second question. What is competency and who defines it? The implication in the previous statement taken from the 1959 Curriculum Study would tend to indicate that competency for the student is self-awareness. Competency for the educator is the student's ability to integrate. Competency for the profession is primarily the socialization of students toward social work values. But what is competency for the agency? It would appear that the answer is obvious, yet obscured in the milieu. It is the ability to do, or the ability to perform. This might lead one to think that as far as the agency is concerned the phenomenon of field instruction is a one-way street, shared by the student, the educators and the profession with little concern about the end result of the ability to perform in the agency.

Patterns of Field Instruction

Since field instruction has been a traditional part of graduate social work education, a description should first be given at this level of current trends with an attempt to relate this to what is developing at the undergraduate and community college levels. It seems to be the graduate model

that influences the structure and content of field instruction at other levels.

The traditional model of field instruction in graduate social work education focuses on the development of practice skills in one or sometimes a combination of two methods of practice. Instruction generally occurs in the context of a single agency and the field experiences are organized and directed by the host agency function. The primary teaching method is tutorial in nature or what some people have termed apprenticeship oriented. Kindlesperger calls this model the work model because in a sense it serves as an introduction to the world of work, and the students are expected to perform work roles similar to those of regular employees.[3] This work model still enjoys wide support and has been upheld by many as an effective learning system. However, the model has also been criticized by a number of people within the profession as having a number of inherent weaknesses. Some say that the work model limits the opportunity for diversity in field training, consequently serving as an impediment to innovation. Students placed in one highly specialized agency may not be exposed to a wide range of experiences and methods. Secondly, some have criticized the work model because of its apprenticeship orientation, maintaining that this has resulted in too much dependence on the field instructor with the resulting problem of not developing initiative, creativity and independence. Another criticism directed at the work model is the limit it places on the number of students which a school can accommodate. Consequently, class sizes are often set according to how many agency placements can be provided.[4]

Graduate schools of social work nationwide have developed a number of new and innovative approaches to field instruction. Some of these approaches have taken the form of placing the students in non-traditional settings, such as legislative committees, planning and research agencies, etc. Others have emphasized a multi-method approach. Within the context of a search for new approaches to field instruction, several new models have emerged that are applicable to all levels of social work education. These will be discussed in greater detail later.

An increasing number of universities are incorporating field instruction into their undergraduate social welfare curricula. The Council on Social Work Education now requires an appropriately directed field experience with direct engagement in service activities for students attending undergraduate schools offering social welfare concentrations if those schools are to be eligible for constituent membership in the Council.[5] Generally, the objectives suggested by the Council on Social Work Education for undergraduate programs place a greater emphasis on job readiness. Several of these objectives relate directly to agency manpower needs, i.e., to prepare students for employment in the helping professions, and provide needed manpower to the field.[6] Though undergraduate field instruction

serves as an integrating process and is modeled on the graduate program, it is recognized that undergraduate students and programs have different rationales, expectations and needs, and that the field sequence must be developed recognizing these different needs. Although field instruction in undergraduate social welfare education serves as an introduction for many students to the social welfare system, educational goals must be attained by the student in the experience and learning to perform as direct service practitioners is of primary importance.

Since two-year associate degree programs in the human services are relatively new, there is not a great deal of literature concerning field instruction at this level. As a matter of fact, there is not yet general agreement as to what actually constitutes field instruction at the associate level. Taken in the context of the human services, well-conceived, well-planned field instruction must be considered at all levels of education. Generally, the goal of the community college in human service programming is to prepare graduates for either further education or immediate employment in a field of practice, and the Council on Social Work Education suggests field instruction at that level should endeavor to serve both ends.[7] The educational goals of field instruction at the associate level as suggested by the CSWE differ little from those goals suggested for undergraduate and graduate education.

Since two-year community college programs in the human service area are relatively new, field instruction has taken various forms, ranging from simple observation to actual client service activities. Several community colleges in the nation have developed field instruction programs comparable to those found at the undergraduate and graduate levels. Others have only limited programs of field instruction, which usually consist of allowing their students to observe one or more social welfare agencies in the community. Others have no planned program of field instruction.

In summary, little difference can be seen in the nature of field instruction programs at the graduate, undergraduate and the associate levels. The differences that do exist seem to be related more to intensity and some content features as opposed to differences relative to the conceptualization of field instruction and its place in the total curriculum. Although it is true that field instruction at the associate level seems to be more work-focused than counterparts in the graduate and undergraduate education, there is still the underlying theme of developing beginning competency.

A great deal of attention has been given recently to the educational continuum in social work. If one of the purposes of field instruction in social work education is to develop beginning competencies, it becomes increasingly important to articulate the level of practice competency to be achieved in field instruction at the three previously mentioned levels. In other words, if a student in a two-year associate program is building beginning competency through the field experience, does he then rebuild

this beginning competency at the undergraduate level should he choose to continue his education, and again at the graduate level. How much attention has been given to the concept then of a progression of competency? In the past, agency personnel and practices have by default determined levels of competency. But now as the educational continuum in social work education becomes more of a reality, this whole area needs rethinking especially if we are still operating basically on a 1950 model.

Innovation in Field Instruction

In the past few years, several new approaches to field instruction have received attention. Most of these approaches have been developed as part of graduate education though there are many experiments in process but not yet reported at the undergraduate level. It is important to note that experiments in field instruction have implications for all levels of education from the community college to the graduate school.

One new approach to field instruction, called the practicum model, has received attention in the new Council on Social Work Education Curriculum Policy Statement. As described by Kindlesperger, the practicum model differs from the traditional work model in that it focuses on the total curriculum as opposed to being highly method oriented. It embraces all parts of the social work continuum—policy, behavior, administration, etc. It also embraces a wider range of learning experiences since it is not tied to a singular method nor to a traditional agency. Just as it embraces total curriculum, it also embraces total service. It does not rest on an apprenticeship orientation, but rather on a much broader range of teaching methods, from observation to participation in policy formation. It also emphasizes self-directed and peer-learning.[8] The practicum model can be applied in traditional field placements. However, the concerns that have generated this new approach have also generated thinking about alternative sites or facilities for field instruction. Thus, the teaching center has become an alternative to the traditional field placement.

Again drawing on Kindlesperger, there are several types of teaching centers. One of these is the university-operated teaching center, operated something like a teaching hospital. The university-operated teaching center is funded by the university, which develops the administrative direction and determines staffing patterns. In its pure form, the university-operated teaching center becomes something of a comprehensive service agency and requires the university to assume a program operation responsibility. Another kind of teaching center is the community-based teaching center which usually utilizes a community or neighborhood organization as a base of operation. The emphasis is on developing a range of interconnected services, or creating a mechanism for coordinated community services. Learning experiences are then developed in a variety of neighborhood settings. Another type of teaching center is the social problem-focused

teaching center. This is similar to the community-based teaching center with the university taking responsibility for coordinating services relative to a defined social problem area, such as delinquency prevention. Regardless of type, the orientation of the teaching center is toward experimentation, innovation and creative learning.[9]

Another new approach to field instruction which has emerged is the consortium. The structure of the consortium approach is similar to that of the university-operated teaching center, except that it employs the resources of a number of educational institutions and utilizes personnel from community agencies in the role of field instructors. The most notable example of this approach comes from undergraduate education. A program entitled Cooperative Social Welfare Action Program (CO-SWAP) was initiated by the Kansas City Regional Council for Higher Education. This is a consortium of eighteen colleges and universities in three states for the purpose of providing a field experience for undergraduate social welfare students directed toward:

1) bridging existing gaps between educational institutions and community welfare organizations;
2) providing an educational program structure in undergraduate education that would permit in-depth field instruction;
3) integrating academic instruction and instructors with real-life situations; and
4) developing a curriculum model that would permit strength, flexibility and continuity between the various campuses and an urban-based "living-learning laboratory."[10]

The Co-SWAP program includes a sixteen-week field experience in an urban-center laboratory in Kansas City.

Although other examples can be cited, these are indicative of some of the innovations in field instruction. A more complete bibliography on field instruction can be found in Appendix A. What do these emerging trends in field instruction mean to social work education, to social work students, and to the agencies that eventually employ them? Let us then look at the issues raised by these advances and the implications they hold.

Issues In Field Instruction: The Student, The School, and the Agency

Let us go back to a question that was raised initially. What is the purpose of field instruction in the context of social work education? We must expand our perspective beyond viewing the purpose of field instruction as being simply a process in which the student develops self-awareness and socialization towards the profession. Field instruction must be viewed as being that part of education where one begins to build competency for practice. From this perspective field instruction may well be the most important part of social work education, albeit the least conceptualized.

Field instruction may be viewed as the crucial interface between

education and practice. This surfaces the old argument of education versus training. Educational institutions maintain that it is their role to educate students and prepare them for the business of social work practice. At the same time, they usually maintain that it is not their business to specifically train students to work in any specified social welfare agency. On the other hand, the agency expects to employ graduates who have the competencies necessary to perform their jobs with a minimum of specialized training.

When educators fail to communicate about curricular content with agency administrators, what some have described as the "hidden agenda" in social work education emerges. This hidden agenda is institutional change. The position of social work educators is that they are attempting to produce social workers who have the competency, the ambition, the integrity and the creativity to have an impact on the organization in which they will eventually work. Thus the thrust of social work education seems to be producing graduates for a variety of practice fields, who will have the means to work toward progressive institutional change in social welfare systems as opposed to simply graduating scores of workers to take their place in the assembly line of social welfare. Field instruction, the most obvious interface between education and practice, taken within the context of the student's experience, is an excellent place to begin conceptualizing the notion of shared responsibility for developing competence. It is important to remember in this process that agencies have important contributions to make to student learning and should be looked upon as partners in this process rather than simply as receivers of students. When this happens the "hidden agenda" of institutional change becomes an "open agenda."

If we look upon field instruction in this manner, recent innovations should be examined. Is innovation sometimes a code word for a failure to do something right in the first place? Let us look at the trend toward university teaching centers as an example. Is it possible that the movement toward university-operated teaching centers is in fact a withdrawal from the reality conditions faced daily by social welfare organizations? If one of the strategies of social work education is to effect institutional change, the movement to university-operated teaching centers may be viewed as no strategy, but as a change in basic tactics. There is something of a "let us show how" approach that many social welfare agencies may view as something less than palatable from their perspective.

The traditional model of field instruction, sometimes called the "work model," needs reexamination as we attempt to reconceptualize field instruction. This model has been criticized because it has generally offered the student only one or two methods of practice. It has been criticized because of the apprenticeship nature of the experience. It supposedly stifles innovation and experimentation with new techniques of service delivery.

The multi-methods approach, inherent in some of the new approaches to field instruction is also subject to criticism. In terms of manpower utilization, we are beginning to see the emergence of the undergraduate social welfare major as the "generalist." At the graduate level we are beginning to see specializations in staff development, consultation, teaching and social administration. It may be that the multi-methods approach is most relevant at the undergraduate level whereas we may need to begin to think about a new educational approach at the graduate level.

As far as the apprenticeship notion is concerned, let us examine the role of field instructor in social work education. It seems that we have assumed that good practitioners who have been quite successful in treating troubled clients can also be quite successful in teaching students. With this in mind, we must examine the competency of the field instructor before we bemoan the frailty of the model. We should strive for excellence in the caliber of the field instructor that we recruit to the same degree that we strive for excellence in the classroom faculty member that we recruit. The field instructor must be both educator and practitioner, educator in the sense that he must be able to identify and provide needed educational experiences for students and practitioner, not only in the sense of being skilled in the delivery of services, but also knowledgeable about the organizational nature of agency-based social work practice. If the traditional model of field instruction stifles innovation we must look to the abilities of the educational institution to conceptualize what is needed and jointly plan the experience with the agency. The field instructor, by virtue of being grounded in both the domains of education and practice, should play a very important role in this negotiation.

The traditional model of field instruction has its shortcomings but for too long we have blamed the agency entirely for this occurrence. While it is true that traditional social welfare organizations have had little time, resources, or expertise to provide the kinds of experiences that are deemed desirable, it would appear that educators have been unable or at least negligent in creating the kind of communication necessary for the joint planning and development of comprehensive, productive field instruction within the context of traditional agencies. If we become too "innovative," field instruction in many social work programs may become little more than a gaming activity unrelated in many ways to the hard realities that exist today in our social welfare system. On the other hand, if we follow the traditional model entirely, field instruction remains little more than a learning for earning activity that holds little promise for innovation or creativity.

The Consortium as a Strategy for Reconceptualization

Project Somebody (described in greater detail in Sections 5, 7, 8 and 10 of this monograph) was developed as an experiment in consortium

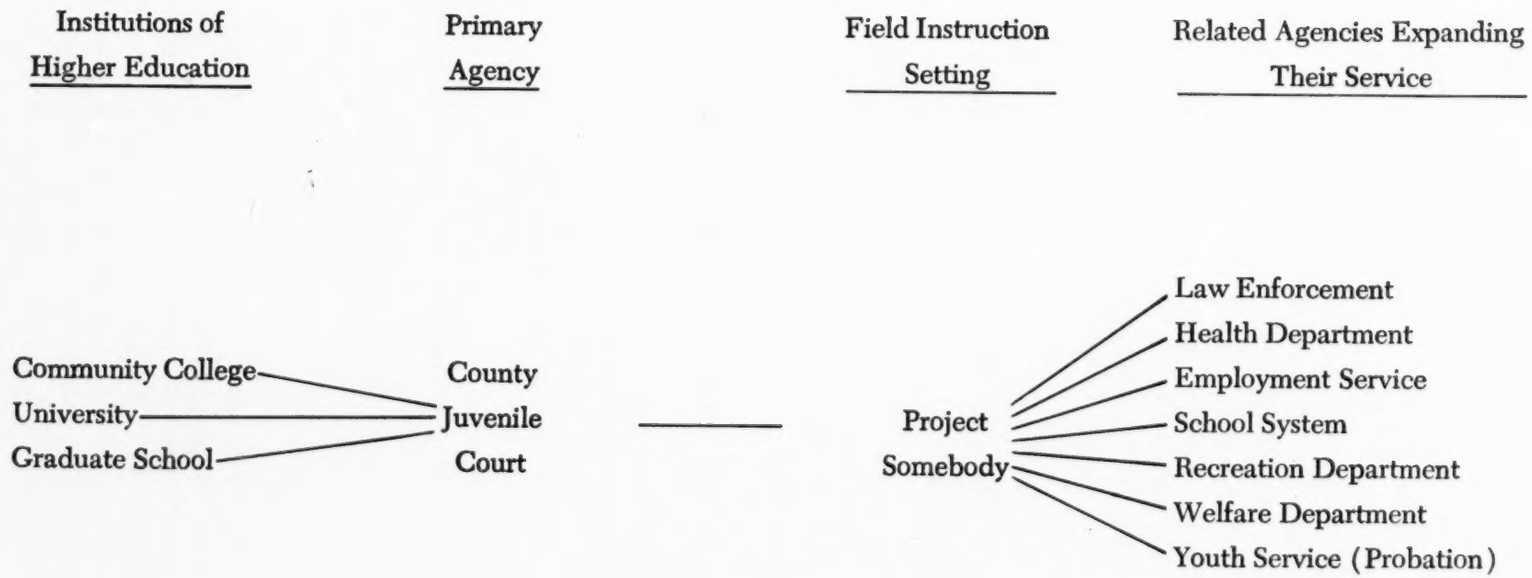
field instruction. Students from a community college program in criminal justice, students from an undergraduate program in social welfare and students from a graduate program in social work became the staff in a storefront delinquency prevention project, operated under the administrative control of the local juvenile court. These students, working together in a team, delivered services to juveniles referred to the project through official channels, developed an effective community outreach program and worked to coordinate a variety of community resources in behalf of the project's clientele. Project Somebody embraced the notion of the university-operated teaching center, the community focused teaching center and the social problem focused teaching center. It is significant that the project operated under the administrative control of the local juvenile court, and as such, became a new service arm of that organization. Consequently, a number of community agencies have pooled their resources to create an extension of this initial effort, and a new service program was created.

The experiences with Project Somebody suggest a somewhat different approach to field instruction that is in keeping with the spirit of innovation both for the educational institution and for the agency. Nationwide, social welfare organizations are experimenting with new kinds of jobs for new personnel. As agencies move more toward differential staffing, educational institutions should reflect this concept in selecting field instruction locations. The consortium approach used by Project Somebody allows for field training of students with different educational backgrounds. This feature is not only reflective of the multi-level staffing patterns being developed in many social welfare agencies, but also is conducive to the notion of peer learning. The model that was developed emphasized the inclusion of the innovative approaches to field instruction adapted from the teaching center approach while at the same time acting as a service arm of a community social welfare organization. What the students do, the services they provide and the manner in which they provide them is a product of joint planning on the part of educational institutions and the agency. As more agencies are brought into the operations of the programs, they are in turn included in this process (see Figure 1).

It is possible to combine the best features of the traditional model of field instruction and the newer teaching center model of field instruction in a productive, comprehensive program which joins educators, students, and prospective employers together in a jointly shared process. There is no reason why field instruction cannot provide students with an opportunity to meet educational standards or objectives, whatever they may be, while at the same time engaging in activities that are both productive and test the spirit of innovation within the agency. For example, the previously described consortium approach to field instruction could easily occur within the context of a traditional social welfare organization. It could be extended to include, not only a number of schools, but a number of different

FIGURE 1

FIELD CONSORTIUM MODEL



kinds of programs. Graduate, undergraduate and community college programs can jointly share field training experiences.

The innovative approaches to field instruction seen in the teaching center approach can be incorporated in traditional social welfare settings. There is no reason why student units cannot be involved in experimenting with new service programs to field test new work roles and to act as agents of social change in traditional settings.

Project Somebody, as a research endeavor relating to new methods of manpower utilization also has implications for developing new definitions of competency. The project served as a field test for the twelve-role model of manpower utilization developed by the Southern Regional Education Board in their publication *Manpower Utilization in Social Welfare.* This research study is described in Section 7 of this monograph. In developing the theoretical framework for this model, Teare identifies five possible foci for examining work activities: 1) the target; 2) the objectives; 3) the tasks or activities; 4) the worker characteristics; and 5) the logistics of the work setting.[11]

Since field instruction should result in the student's beginning acquisition of competency for practice (which in effect is work activity), these five foci could serve as the means for developing student performance objectives in field instruction. First, the student should be able to identify the target systems of the agency or setting within which he is placed. He should be able to describe the interrelationships that exist between individual, family and community in terms of problems and service needs, and he should be able to implement service activities designed to meet those needs. The student should also be able to evaluate the agency's target systems in terms of appropriateness. He should be able to answer the questions: Are the right clients being served? Are there additional client groups that the agency is not reaching? Are the outreach and intake procedures of the agency adequate for identifying service needs? Secondly, the student should be able to identify the service objectives of the agency or setting. Does the agency primarily engage in detection and referral? Does the agency primarily focus on behavior change in individual clients through casework services? Is the agency primarily responsible for coordinating a variety of community services? The student should also be able to evaluate the service objectives of the agency as to their relevance to the problems of the identified target groups. Thirdly, the student should be able to identify the work activities of a variety of agency service personnel and evaluate the organization of these work activities relative to the total service effort. Are the worker activities of the agency appropriate in terms of service objectives? This of course would also involve the student's evaluation of his own responsibilities within the agency. Fourthly, the student should be able to identify the worker characteristics in the agency or setting. How are service personnel used? Do professionals do the same thing as para-

professionals? What is the technician's responsibility? Are worker characteristics used effectively in providing services? This would require the student to not only understand the agency in which he works and its clientele, but also to understand the professions which serve that clientele. And finally the student should be able to understand and evaluate logistical considerations of the agency or setting in which he is placed. To what degree do office hours dictate worker activities and the availability of service? How can staff be more effectively deployed to meet client needs? Are agency services accessible?

These considerations represent the kind of issues that daily confront workers and administrators in social welfare agencies. This conceptual approach to field instruction may well provide a more realistic and productive attempt to begin to build practice competency in students.

In conclusion, field instruction represents a critical, if not the most critical part of social work education. It must be considered as part of, not an addendum to, the educational process. Schools and departments of social work must take a new approach administratively to field instruction so that field instruction faculty are clearly considered to be on an equal status to those of teaching faculty. Finally, the potential payoffs to social welfare agencies must be considered and reflected in the reconceptualization of field instruction.

NOTES

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APPENDIX A

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PART II

NEW PROGRAMS IN SOCIAL WELFARE AND CORRECTIONS

Initiating A Delinquency Prevention Outreach Program In A Southern Ghetto

Edward Kelleher

In attempting to establish a model in field consortium and in exploring new models for agency service delivery, we set in motion a very real and very unique community service. For, we attempted to initiate "delinquency prevention" outreach services in a black enclave in the deep South.

Our initial concept was to extend and formalize the informal probation system already in existence within the county juvenile court. The juvenile court system, out of both a genuine concern for children and a lack of service resources, had developed an informal probation system. Children in trouble for the first time, at the discretion of the court and with the signing in chambers of a legal consent to supervision between the parent, child and the court, were assigned to the supervision of an upstanding citizen, and when the parents could afford it, to private psychotherapy.

The county judge estimated on the basis of data collected that his system was 50 per cent effective. It was most effective with children whose parents could afford private professional care, less effective with the poor, black child. The Advisory Board of the Juvenile Court, the judge and county commissioners gave sanction to the storefront project as an extension of the informal probation system in an effort to reach the county's highest delinquency area, the ghetto known as Frenchtown.

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"Frenchtown," according to tradition, is a section of town held by the French when the Spanish and French were fighting for possession of Old Florida. Frenchtown is a high density area, 95 per cent black, and subject to all the social ills of extreme poverty. It is one of two "black" areas of the city that contrast sharply with the general spacious, suburban character of the city. Whites generally avoid the area and few social service agencies are located within its confines. There is little public transportation to bring its residents to service agencies. From time to time "grassroots" agencies bloom in Frenchtown but soon wither and die from lack of money and support.

We were, therefore, clear that a long-range goal had to be the development of primary prevention services addressing the problems of inadequate health care, unemployment, poor housing and the like. The handicaps to doing this remain formidable. We had a clear sanction from the juvenile court to intervene in individual cases. We did not have sanction from the Frenchtown community to operate any kind of program at all, let alone play a significant role in community organization.

Further, we were soon aware that the animosity and distrust between black and white communities was deep. An example of the degree of this distrust can be seen in police-community relations. Police have found their attempts to bring police services into the community thwarted and limited to making arrests. Blacks will not report burglaries in order to avoid police intervention.

Without a full understanding of these realities, the original concept of a storefront field training project was approved by an advisory committee of the Social Work–Social Welfare Education Project. The concept was to open Project Somebody–Storefront Operation Mobilized Especially by Our Dedicated Youth–a storefront serving pre-delinquent youngsters referred by the police and the courts to stimulate community involvement among Frenchtown's adults.

The project staff and student trainees quickly became aware of the nature of the problems of the children referred to us, the nature of the community in which they live, and the fear and despair of the parents. Democratic participation in program development was an empty concept among the children and a bitter white shibboleth to the poor black adult. We found our children had suffered educational neglect under "separate but equal provisions" and were often far behind in their recently integrated schools. We have seen the effects upon children of the poverty area (35 per cent of the area residents earn under $2500 per year). Mothers hire out as domestics for $35.00 a week, leaving the care of the children with an older daughter. Men cannot find work.

We quickly then found ourselves reassessing what the community would allow us to do and how we could relate to the teenagers. We presented ourselves to the community as a teen center, involving the children

in planning their own activities and inviting interested black and white adults to assist. While vulnerable to criticism for supposedly competing with other recreational programs, we found our developing group activities program a useful beginning. We felt that our group activity and informal style would be seen positively by the community, decrease mistrust and stimulate adult involvement. We felt additionally that we would reduce the stigma of our authoritarian role as an extension of juvenile court services. We were not a place for "bad children" to come. We also felt that both the black and white communities would find the project to be neutral grounds for developing constructive programs for youth. Indeed, we have succeeded in finding support from both black and white individuals and groups.

Staffing the Storefront

Consistent with the research aims of the project, the Somebody teen center was staffed by students at three levels of education—A.A., B.A., and M.S.W. The students from the beginning carried major responsibility for the planning, development and implementation of the project. At the beginning we worked in three's, each team having one representative from each level of training. Several factors mitigated against this arrangement. The graduate students, due to a scheduling difference began in placement several weeks before the other students and felt a certain proprietary interest in the project. After all, they had turned "Robert's Supermarket" into the Somebody Teen Center by cleaning, painting, plastering and planning the Open House program. Personality factors made a significant difference. There seemed to be a "generation gap" between the graduate students who were settled on careers in traditional casework and the less sure and more open undergraduates. The community college students and the undergraduate university students felt much closer to the teenage clients; the graduate students felt more comfortable dealing with other professionals. The graduate students had conceptualized considerable knowledge about planning and offering services while the undergraduates proceeded more by intuition and impulse.

The original team of three students concept failed. A small inter-group confrontation took place with the A.A. and B.A. students asserting their rights to equal partnership in the project. The result was a task-oriented realignment within a committee of the whole with the undergraduates taking on leadership in direct service and the graduate students taking on more internal agency management and interagency coordination.

A very happy by-product of this confrontation was the beginning of a series of frank and open discussions and the development of a very close bond between the students involved in the project. There were five white and four black students assigned to the project, and through their interaction it was clear that many myths and fantasies about race remain in the South even after social barriers are lowered. Both black and white students ex-

perienced rejection in the community because of their free and open association. The black students generally seemed to find a new dimension to their self-concept in their genuine acceptance as equal partners in the project. The white students learned a new sensitivity and deepened awareness of the black experience. The students continue their interest in the program and several who remained in the area serve as volunteers. The fact that the students continued their involvement after their official placement ended is one indication of the emotional impact of the program on the students and the degree to which the students felt they had a key and critical role in developing the program.

A graduate student (white), in evaluating his placement experience, wrote: "A beautiful personal experience—I only wish I had been a bit braver, less defensive, and more creative in whatever input I managed to give the process."

An undergraduate student (black) wrote: "I've come to love the center, and leaving it is almost as bad as losing a limb. I must admit, at this point, that I was taken aback that first day by the hopeless look of everything at Project Somebody. But a mere eight or nine weeks later I'd take offense if anyone were to use that adjective in connection with the Center. I feel as much a part of it as the ping pong table must."

Often students in placement are seen as an appendage to an agency, rather than as an integral part of it. Whether students are accorded high or low status, they are invariably treated as special. The student is protected. Our experience seems to indicate that allowing students to participate in a variety of roles, including the making of an agency policy, results in a deeper involvement and a much stronger identification with the social work field as a purveyor of social services. Most of the undergraduates have applied for additional training. Two of the three B.A. students have applied to graduate school. The third has become a state parole officer. One of the A.A-level students is seeking admission to a social welfare program. Two are seeking admission to schools of criminology.

Almost from the beginning, we were innundated with volunteers interested in participating in the group activity programs. The largest and earliest groups of volunteers were from the three universities. The students were, of course, trying their wings in relating to the poor and offering their services. They are energetic, idealistic and, unfortunately, unreliable. Class schedules, examinations and social activities frequently take priority over volunteer service time.

Church groups from the white community offered donations of program materials, small amounts of money and some service support. This support for the project was vital. Whatever philosophical disagreement there might have been about the supplying of charity rather than seeking the establishment of planned social service, it is unfortunately true that this southern city still operates on a "charity for the poor" mentality. Inter-

racial projects such as Somebody, we believe, will involve the white middle class on the necessary emotional level to effect community planning changes.

A third group of volunteers surfaced unexpectedly. This was the business community. Often, social workers feel they have cornered the market on community concern and often overlook the social conscience of the business community. IBM has been particularly interested in the project and has given of its time and money to support the program. We have found support from local merchants both in providing program materials and financial support.

We have slowly gained support from young adults in the Frenchtown community. This group is most consistent in its program support. Most of the group have been involved in publicly supported training programs and are sustained by the hope that their technical training will lift them from their current dead-end and menial employment into a good paying job. They have younger brothers and sisters who are active at the teen center and they see themselves as somehow conveying belief in the American Dream to these younger children.

Building Program

Out of the different volunteer groups has come a program advisory committee, a prototype for community leadership when we achieve our goal of community control of the project. However exciting the program may become, we feel that the primary function of the program has been to develop community visibility in order to build a base for developing community support for youth programming.

The group activities themselves are constantly evolving and becoming more sophisticated. As we have been able to divert our energies from "getting things going" to an honest analysis of whether our activities reflect staff and volunteer interest or teenage participant interest, we have been able to become more flexible and more sophisticated. There are now two basketball teams, sewing class, black rap sessions, health information conducted by student nurses, a budding music program, radio and electronics. A talent show and fashion show are in rehearsal. Children on official probation meet twice a week with their probation officer at the center for reality therapy group sessions. We are open seven days a week with a group of young adults from the community running the program on Sundays. Over one hundred children participate each week in planned group activities. An average of 30 children "drop-in" each day. There are identifiable groups of regulars, fringe groups, and visitors.

Our most striking success has been in working with individual clients. Our original understanding with the juvenile court and with the police was that we would take children from the Frenchtown area who, in the judgment of the court and police, would benefit by our intervention rather than by referral to the formal court process. Our criteria quickly became

quite elastic for we were perceived by all social agencies as another resource for poor black children in trouble, regardless of geographical location or degree of delinquency. Although many of our cases involved children in considerable difficulty, only one has been formally adjudicated following our intervention. In this case, a 15-year-old boy found himself totally rejected by his family (they moved away while he was in detention) and involved in a serious problem (starting a melee at a sports event) and totally without community resources (no foster homes available, no school placement available).

The case of James B. is more typical. James, 13 and in the custody of the Division of Family Services, ran away from a foster home to join his mother and two siblings. There is no father in the picture and Mrs. B. is struggling to make a home after parole from prison. She works as a chambermaid. James was picked up with a stolen bicycle and implicated in a burglary. He is a constant school problem and reads very poorly although he is bright.

In straightening out James' legal status with welfare and the juvenile court, squaring James with the police, helping his mother manage him and helping the school cope with his behavior and offer him a challenging program, we quickly developed the role of quiet advocate for both the family and child. We found that our greatest asset was our ability to provide the little extra assistance—the ride to the welfare office, the help with the forms, the further explanation that made the situation intelligible and manageable to the welfare worker. As an interracial agency intervening between black poverty and white structure, we found a great deal of receptiveness to our case assistance on the part of the public agencies.

In our transactions with the system, we stressed our lack of authority, our apolitical interest, and our willingness to be helpful. This helped to focus on the client's and family's needs and the response by welfare workers, vocational counselors, school administrators and policemen was often beyond the call of duty. We felt able to bring out an idealism of meeting client needs buried beneath paperwork. We seldom worked beyond the line level of authority. The need for interagency cooperation was poignantly clear, for never did we find a case without the usual constellation of poverty-related problems.

From Pilot Project to Service Program

Just as our group activity program resembles an earlier era of settlement house programming, the quality of our individual intervention had a "friendly visitor" feeling to it. Little attempt was made to offer therapy services. Our concentration was on bringing families and children into focus for agency service.

We would be remiss to pretend that we were not aware of the conspiracy of silence about the rights of the poor to social service or to pretend

that there is not a deep sense of hopelessness among the poor, nor that black rage does not simmer deeply within the ghetto. It is clear that our intervention in individual cases cannot resolve broader social problems. While our student staff is quietly involved in planning health information services, transportation services as well as seeking interagency coordination, casual observation of the city would indicate small willingness to change the status quo.

Election after election indicates a well-organized landed middle class, and a totally disorganized lower class. Few citizens of the city know the name of the City Manager, the most powerful man in city government in the opinion of many. A multiplicity of other indications point towards an unwillingness or inability to significantly alter the balance of power.

Community involvement may be able to develop out of the free and open settlement house atmosphere of Somebody, for we are attempting to offer both adult and child educational and cultural opportunities reinforcing pride, identity and hope, and above all, teaching democratic process and citizen participation. White involvement with the fate of Somebody children is perhaps a small hope for a real change.

Finally, as the project moves toward community control, one hopes it might continue to meet the needs of youth and hopefully develop into a multi-service center as well, help to generate new services in the community itself and in an evolutionary way, bring power to the people.

Specialized Manpower Needs In Corrections With Emphasis On Social Work

H. Ray Graves

The first forty years of the twentieth century saw charity and corrections wedded into a welfare movement of great hope and promise in the United States. As early as 1863, Massachusetts created the first state board of supervisors to administer the operation of that state's charitable and penal institutions. Other states then followed the example by rapidly establishing State Boards of Charities and Corrections. The administrators of these agencies organized the National Conference of Charities and Corrections after their attempts to affiliate with the American Social Science Association met with persistent rebuffs. The National Conference of Charities and Corrections provided institutional administrators and practitioners with an annual forum at which they could discuss their common interests – their linkage – in the problems of dependency (poverty), mental deficiency, insanity, juvenile institutions and adult prisons. However, it was at these conferences (numerically dominated by the practitioner) that the professionalization of social work was stimulated by Mary Richmond who designed the framework for the new profession, and used the annual forum as a sounding board for much of her theory.[1]

Apparently the National Conference had become a political pressure group influenced by administrators of both public and private agencies, but the practitioners won out, and the National Conference of Charities and

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Corrections became the National Conference of Social Work and moved toward a professional career-oriented service.

Following the dissolution of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections, the National Prison Association (later to be renamed the American Prison Association) was left as the only national group concerned with prisons and reformatories. The APA proceeded with a movement of prison reform which was destined to become international in scope.[2]

The National Conference of Social Work gave impetus to an emerging young profession, and new methods of preventive social work and individual treatment began to replace the former custodial approach to poverty, delinquency, child and family welfare services. The social worker assumed dominance of the social welfare system, and left the custodial-oriented prisons to whomever wanted them. Across the nation separate Departments of Public Welfare and Departments of Corrections began to replace the older State Board of Charities and Corrections. For all practical purposes, social work and prison administration went their separate ways.

With the rise of the extramural treatments of adult probation and parole and with many states including juvenile institutions, juvenile probation and aftercare as a part of their correctional systems, the American Prison Association gradually found itself representing only a part of the field, so it changed its name again in 1954, this time to the American Correctional Association, and it broadened its activities in an attempt to include the entire field of corrections. The National Conference of Social Work, on the other hand, continued to busy itself with the issues and problems of an evolving profession. It was concerned with social work education and social work practice, and prepared the way for the professional society known today as the National Association of Social Workers. Corrections has continued to evolve as an ever-broadening field for various professional practices (including social work), but there has not yet been any widely accepted claims made for corrections as an emerging profession.

Corrections journals over the past twelve years have offered a steady stream of articles on the professionalization of the correctional worker, but there still is no consensus as to just who the professional in corrections is, and certainly there can be no hope for gaining an agreement between the field and those in the halls of academia pertaining to the process of professionalization until those in the field agree among themselves.

People in a variety of occupational and professional categories utilize different techniques and skills in working with offenders; these people include correctional officers, chaplains, teachers, vocational instructors, psychologists, physicians, recreation directors, industrial and trade supervisors, craftsmen, administrators, maintenance men, cooks, probation officers, parole officers and prison counselors. Obviously, the overwhelming majority of these people, and many others who work in corrections, neither draw on a specialized body of correctional knowledge nor are they products of

formalized professional training, nor is it necessary that they be. The traditional professionals that now have work roles in corrections (chaplains, psychologists, M.S.W.'s, physicians, etc.) all draw on a specialized body of knowledge already identified with a traditional profession. Technically, correctional managers as managers, are not practitioners and do not as a class qualify as professionals.[3] One can note from the Final Report of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training that those correctional managers who have earned degrees did their major study in academic fields varying from Anthropology to Zoology, and all in-between.[4] Hence, there appears to be little choice but to center the question of professionalization on what Professor Peter Lejins has termed "general correctional workers" who are "general practitioners" engaged in the process of counseling and rehabilitating offenders (i.e., probation officers, parole officers, and classification officers).[5]

For legislators or administrators to simply say that the over-all goal is to "professionalize" corrections is meaningless because it lacks any clearly defined goals for the educational process. The tasks of an individual and the system within which he performs them are in no way comparable to the features which characterize the traditional professions: a defined set of conduct norms; a method of self-policing; independent practice; and a licensing feature. More precisely, we can not professionalize correctional workers by attempting to make a new profession of corrections; corrections is a *field* in which a variety of professional arts must be practiced. On the other hand, to "professionalize" may be taken to mean, more broadly, equipping the individual worker to perform at the highest level of competence within a sphere of activity. In this sense we might discuss the professionalization of the correctional worker, and include undergraduate-trained personnel in this context.

The recruitment of professional manpower with an emphasis on master's level social work training as a preferred qualification for probation and parole officers has been the standard for some areas in the United States for a number of years. The President's Task Force Committee on Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice suggested that the M.S.W. might be the preferred degree for general correctional treatment personnel, but the surveys made for the commission indicated that "nowhere" is the standard being consistently met.[6] In a national personnel survey conducted for the Joint Commission by Louis Harris and Associates, in 1968, it was determined that 39 per cent of all correctional administrators *who hold masters degrees* have that degree in social work, and that 48 per cent of correctional supervisors *who have masters degrees* have earned the M.S.W.[7] Still the Joint Commission report concludes:

> "There is little connection, in current practice, between educational background and the performance of particular functions. Corrections has no well-defined link to any level or discipline of the educational

system. A college graduate with a B.A. in history who somehow managed to get into correctional work is as likely to be an institutional counselor as is a person holding a masters degree in social work."[8]

Those social workers who have found their way into corrections have generally gone into field services (probation and parole); few indeed end up working in adult or juvenile correctional institutions. The National Center for Educational Statistics reveals that of all graduates from schools of social work (M.S.W.) across the country, not more than six per cent will likely find their way into corrections, and a scarce few of that percentage will actively seek positions in correctional institutions.[9]

Perhaps this is because social work educators and social work practitioners have been among the most persistent critics of corrections. Social workers still tend to focus their displeasure on correctional administrators, as they did fifty years ago when the National Conference on Charities and Corrections first began dissolving. They claim that most prison administrators have failed to make any real effort to adopt a treatment model, yet they manage to hold on tenaciously to the custodial-punishment model. Social workers are often heard to complain that when a professional practitioner (from any discipline) is recruited into correctional institutions he is never given a significant voice in the formulation of policy.

In a recent visit to Florida State Prison and several other adult correctional institutions, this writer heard the theme repeated consistently among classification officers (the "professional" staff): "The old-guard, the custodial staff, runs the prison. We are not taken seriously." In discussing this complaint with those who are primarily charged with the custodial function their rebuttal was discovered to be just as consistent. From institutional managers to correctional officers the reply was essentially the same: "The social worker type is not loyal. They are too easily conned by the inmates, and they take sides with the inmates." Judging from the context in which the institutional managers use the term "loyalty," one might suspect that the conflict goes beyond the much-discussed polarization of the "keepers" and the "treaters" in the correctional structure. One begins to suspect, even if it has not been scientifically measured, that so many social workers are like other creative practitioners and are "highly individualistic and therefore have personality traits which are, in many respects, in conflict with the bureaucratic value system."[10] These people tend to be more interested in their own professional expertise and the application of that expertise than in promoting the maintenance of the institution which serves as "host" for their practice.

For whatever the reasons, justified or not, there has been little or no trend in social work toward corrections in the State of Florida; neither has there been any evidence of a trend in corrections toward social work. (If there is an exception, it would be in the work with juveniles done by the Division of Youth Services). This is true in spite of the fact that such a

prominent writer in social work literature as Elliot Studt has supported strong claims that "correctional practice can actually contribute to social work theory and education and that each can enrich the other to the mutual benefit of both."[11] This is true in spite of the fact that Florida's own nationally recognized pioneer in education for corrections, Dr. Vernon Fox, has published his view that "of the conventional curricula, professional training in social work appears to be best suited for the correctional field,"[12] although Dr. Fox goes on to suggest that conventional social work training has some serious limitations in the correctional field and that schools of social work might do well to modify their curriculum to accommodate corrections. It is Dr. Fox's expressed opinion that the failure of the schools of social work to make necessary concessions has resulted in the development of one-year masters degree programs in corrections.[13]

We must assume that we could get, if we tried, a widespread consensus in Florida that our correctional system, along with most other states' correctional systems, is in a continuing search for the most effective approach to the rehabilitation of offenders. We also assume that there can be no denying that specialized manpower trained to deal with the casual factors of criminal and delinquent behavior is in critical short supply, and trained manpower at all levels of education are needed for improving the correctional process in the State of Florida. In the context of these assumptions we shall proceed to look at the specialized manpower needs in corrections, with a special emphasis on social work.

The specialized manpower dilemma in corrections is usually described in terms of numerical ratios: only one social worker for every 350 prisoners, one psychiatrist for every 4000 prisoners, caseloads of 200 to 250 clients per probation officer, etc. To present the problem in this manner suggests that the strategy called for to cope with the problem is to design more effective recruitment programs and seek to increase the numbers of "qualified" people entering the field. Naturally, such recruitment would include the improvement of the career system of corrections, and inevitably get around to the need for more money. In a recent five-year plan projected by the Florida Probation and Parole Commission the personnel problem and recruitment strategy is stated thusly:

> "In any program aimed toward the preservation and reclamation of human resources, there are two variables: the target group—the people for whom services are provided, and the instrument group—the people providing the service. Personnel development is concerned with the instrument group and unless this *factor* can be perfected, probation and parole will not be able to maintain either its professional status or attain its goal of crime prevention and control. — In order to retain this (professional) caliber of individual, they must be assured of good working conditions, adequate pay, reasonable working hours, annual and sick leave, retirement provision, security of tenure, freedom from

political control and interference, advancement and promotional opportunities and the chance to improve their basic skills and fund of knowledge."[14]

The five-year plan goes on to say: "The recruitment program of the agency needs to be expanded to cover all accredited universities and colleges within the State offering degrees in Sociology, Psychology, or Criminology."[15]

The other two major user agencies of correctional manpower in Florida are the Division of Corrections and the Division of Youth Services (Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services); they have taken a similar approach to the Parole and Probation Commission by increasing efforts to recruit undergraduates directly from college programs. Even if the public agencies which employ correctional manpower should decide that it is desirable to employ master-level professionals for the corrections task, all attempts that might be made over the next ten years to recruit any appreciable numbers of specialized manpower at that level could be nothing but futile. Projections through 1975 made by the National Center for Educational Statistics of the U.S. Office of Education show that there will be severe shortages of advanced degree holders in all academic fields from which corrections draws its specialized manpower.[16] A study authorized by the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare indicated that this federal agency alone could employ every M.S.W. graduated from all of the schools of social work in this country through 1979, and still have a demand greater than the supply.[17] There *must* be a more hopeful strategy for professionalizing corrections than the one of intensifying recruitment efforts, when we know that the effort is destined to fail.

At the time of this writing, a Florida legislative committee was working on a "Correctional Reform Act"[18] which would authorize special and intensive treatment for youthful offenders and first offenders, and would simultaneously increase the demand for skilled correctional "treatment" people. The Florida Division of Corrections has been allocated monies by the state legislature to transform the old road prisons into community-based treatment centers. More "treatment" people will be needed. The Florida Division of Youth Services was authorized by the legislature in 1971 to assume responsibility for all juvenile court intake and probation services throughout the state, in addition to continued responsibility for aftercare. The Division was at the same time authorized to employ 1100 additional specialized personnel. In a move that Florida's news media headlined as "the first time ever," the state legislature is studying an appropriations bill that acknowledges parole and probation as the better alternatives to prison, and if passed into law, it will need to authorize sufficient funds to increase greatly the field staff of the Probation and Parole Commission. The legislature will soon be offered a bill proposing to create a "corrections standards board," which would provide minimum qualifications for cor-

rections officers, and establish a corrections officers training program.[19] These legislative activities have been listed as some evidence that there is a good climate for correctional change in Florida, but new and innovative programs in corrections can only intensify the dilemma of specialized manpower shortages.

Correctional planners in Florida realized some years ago that it was not enough to concentrate on recruiting their specialized workers from the traditional professional manpower pools; consequently Florida was one of the earliest states in the nation to activate a program in one of its state universities to specifically train for professional careers in corrections, and by the Fall term of 1972 at least three other state universities will add programs in criminal justice education, which will include corrections majors, to their offerings.[20] Still, neither the "more-of-the-same" kinds of recruitment programs nor the educational programs which are specifically designed to train people for professional careers in corrections will likely be enough to rescue corrections from its manpower dilemma.

The prospect of determining the most promising approach to solving Florida's program of specialized manpower shortages in corrections is truly awesome; however, an approach which stresses manpower *utilization* as the key to the problem rather than manpower recruitment might be the one most promising. It was such an approach as this that the field consortium (Project Somebody), which is discussed at length in other parts of this monograph, attempted to demonstrate. This "task analysis" approach contends that the manpower problem might well be solved by a restructuring of the traditional "professional" roles in the correctional system, which would include a breakdown and reassignment of professional tasks among semiprofessionals, subprofessionals, and aides wherever appropriate. Task analysis, a tool borrowed from industry is essential for implementing this approach. However, it must be realized that not until after an analysis is made in relation to the needs of the offenders and also an analysis made of the comparative effectiveness of various techniques of treatment, can a task analysis determine the optimum and minimum qualifications for a worker performing "treatment" functions. Not until such determinations are made can we intelligently develop plans for recruiting and training staff, nor until then can we outline career ladders which are truly functional. One of the Joint Commission reports states:

> "Task analysis could completely redefine the assessment of service requirements. Current literature reveals lack of agreement on the most effective forms of treatment for various types of offenders. *Appreciable research on the subject is absent. Further research, including field examination on the appropriate forms of job restructuring for corrections probably would be desirable.*"[21]

Emphasis was added because this was precisely the kind of research done in the Project Somebody experiment conducted by the Florida Board of

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Regents, and as suggested, further research is both appropriate and desirable.

The *Wickersham Report* in 1931, the report of the *President's Committee on Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice* in 1967, and the report of the *Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training* in 1970 have each, in their own way, indicted the American criminal justice system in general for its failure to protect society from the criminal, and the corrections field in particular for its failure to rehabilitate the offender. Each of the prestigious reports stressed the need for a *reconceptualization* of corrections and correctional practice. There is much evidence that innovative and effective new programs in corrections are not likely to be forthcoming until more extensive research has been done to aid us in a reconceptualization of our treatment approach. The 1971 Florida State Legislature passed an authorization for a Ph.D. level position in the Division of Corrections to direct the implementation of a new research and treatment program. This position was almost immediately filled and research is now being conducted by the Division to determine the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of various treatment methods.[22] Enlightening research has been done (1971) regarding the introduction of the New Careers concept into the Florida Parole and Probation Commission and reported in *A Study of Change*.[23] New programs have been started by the Florida Division of Youth Services in the correctional institutions as a result of that Division's reconceptualization of its treatment approach. The conceptual model which has emerged within that agency has been a radical shift from the old "individual treatment" or "casework model" to what might be called the "social action" model.[24] Such reconceptualization certainly implies significant changes in specialized manpower requirements, especially for the social worker. Group work, community organization, and client advocacy become more a part of the "treatment" task in the social action model, and "casework" becomes increasingly less relevant that it was in the old individualized treatment model. New treatment approaches must inevitably result in a different perception of the kinds of competencies and skills needed in relation to the functions of personnel and the services to be delivered.

Results of such experiments as those listed above begin to imply that pushing the standard for graduate level "professionals" in Florida's correctional system may not be realistic and could be detrimental as far as recruiting the needed specialized manpower. This standard is not now being met and the projected output of graduate schools indicates that there is no possible way for it to be met in the foreseeable future. The circulation of such unrealistic standards can tend to frustrate corrections administrators and at the same time discourage undergraduates from pursuing the opportunities of "practice" in the corrections field.

Corrections must continue to reexamine the tasks to be performed and

set its educational standards in terms of specific functions. Needless to say, corrections needs the assistance of higher education. The universities and community colleges can enhance the desirability of corrections as a career choice by making a concerted effort to prepare students for employment in the field and by providing ongoing educational opportunities for those already in the field.

NOTES

[1]F. J. Bruno, *Trends in Social Work as Reflected in the Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work* 1874-1956, 2nd Edition. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1957).

[2]Data from *Directory for Correctional Institutions and Agencies,* (Washington: American Correctional Association, 1967).

[3]Julian Roebuck and Paul Zelhart, "The Problem of Educating the Correctional Practitioner," *Crime and Delinquency* 45 (1964).

[4]Final Report of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, *A Time To Act* (Sowers Printing Co., Lebanon, Pa.) p. 21.

[5]Peter Lejins, "Aspects of Correctional Pesonnel Training as Viewed by a College Professor," 191 *Proceedings 85th Annual Congress of Corrections,* American Prison Association (1955).

[6]President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections* (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office 1967) pp. 210-211.

[7]*Op. cit.,* "A Time to Act," p. 23.

[8]*Ibid,* p. 22.

[9]*Perspectives on Correctional Manpower and Training* (Washington: Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1970) p. 35.

[10]John M. Pfiffner and Marshall Fels, *Supervision Personnel: Human Relations in the Management of Men* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1964) p. 334.

[11]See Elliot Studt, "A School of Social Work Builds a Program for Correctional Personnel," *N.P.P.A. Journal,* July 1956; and Elliot Studt, "The Contribution of Correctional Practice to Social Work Theory and Education," *Social Casework,* June 1956.

[12]Vernon Fox, "The University Curriculum in Corrections," *Federal Probation,* Sept. 1959, p. 52.

[13]*Ibid,* p. 53. (In a personal interview with Dr. Fox in Dec. 1971, he reaffirmed this position.)

[14]*Five-Year Plan,* 1971-1975, Florida Parole and Probation Commission. Section 1.63.

[15]*Ibid.,* Section 1.631 (This report is on file in the office of Mr. Jack Madden, Personnel and Training Officer, Parole and Probation Commission.)

[16]*Op. cit.,* "A Time to Act," p. 34.

[17]*Closing the Gap in Social Work Manpower,* Report of the Departmental Task Force on Social Work Education and Manpower. (Washington: U.S. Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1965), pp. 17-27.

[18]H. B. 3208 by the Committee on Health and Rehabilitative Services.

[19]H. B. 3189 by Rep. Tillman and others.

[20]South Florida University, Florida Atlantic University, and Florida International

University. (The specialized corrections program continues at Florida State University.)

[21]*Op. cit.*, "Perspectives on Correctional Manpower and Training," p. 28.

[22]This program is under the direction of Dr. Charles Horn; Research and Treatment Center, 1015 West University Avenue, Gainesville, Florida.

[23]Cloud H. Miller, III. *A Study of Change: The Introduction of the "New Careers" Concept into the Florida Parole and Probation Commission.* (A masters thesis submitted to the Department of Criminology, Florida State University, 1972).

[24]Richard L. Rachin, "The Message Corrections Must Get Across," *Federal Probation,* June 1970. (Mr. Rachin, Chief, Bureau of Group Treatment, Florida Division of Youth Services, speaks to this point in the above article, but in a telephone conversation he described the "reconceptualization" that has taken place in Florida's Division of Youth Services.)

PART III
RESEARCH AND DEMONSTRATION

New Ways To Train and Utilize Manpower: An Exploratory Study

Philip L. Smith and Curtis H. Krishef

Introduction

The emphasis today in social welfare organizations is on change—change in service programs, change in service delivery, and change in manpower development and utilization. Nationwide, social welfare organizations are experimenting with new worker types to deliver new kinds of services. We have seen the emergence of the indigenous and non-indigenous para-professional, the increased use of the technician (graduates of two-year programs in a variety of human services areas), and a growing awareness of the competencies of the undergraduate social welfare major. Consequently, these same organizations are evaluating and redesigning the work roles of existing personnel. As more emphasis is placed on manpower considerations, new manpower planning techniques must be developed. Though beginning efforts are taking place, still relatively little is known about new strategies for more productive manpower development and utilization. A detailed description of manpower issues is contained in Section 3 of this monograph.

At the same time educational institutions are feeling the impact of agency manpower problems. New programs are being developed at the community college level, undergraduate social welfare programs are receiving more attention, and curricula at the graduate level is being radically redesigned. As the search for quality personnel continues in the agency

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sphere, the search for quality educational programs at multiple levels continues in the educational sphere. Just as the career ladder takes on new importance in the agency, so does the educational continuum in universities and community colleges. As these institutions strive to effect a more productive interface, the field practicum takes on new importance. The movement in agencies toward differential staffing seems to have preceded the creation of similarly structured field training programs in educational institutions. Some experimentation is now occurring with new approaches to field training—most notably the development of the field consortium. A detailed description of new approaches to field instruction is contained in Section 4 of this monograph.

Given the perplexing problems of developing new approaches to manpower utilization and effecting a more productive interface among multi-level educational programs, the field practicum may be an ideal place to start resolving these problems. If agencies are experimenting with new ways to staff new programs, why not replicate that situation with an innovative approach to field training? This question then became central to this exploratory study.

Study Design

In order to operationalize the central study question for a trial field test, we selected two conceptual approaches—one of which dealt with the use of multi-level teams in the delivery of social services; the other with a developmental approach to manpower utilization.

The Team Concept

The use of interdisciplinary teams in social service delivery is by no means a new idea. Mental health centers, child guidance centers, and other agencies have used this approach for years. However, the concept of using multi-level teams in the delivery of social services with the medium for service being an "episode of service," "a unit of differentiation that encompasses a single manifest organizational goal of filling a client need . . ." rather than individual case assignments, is largely attributed to Robert L. Barker and Thomas L. Briggs.[1]

Barker and Briggs define the differential use of social work personnel as a "social work organization's allocation of its functions to the organization members who are considered most capable of fulfilling them efficiently."[2] Given this definition, the process of decision-making becomes critical. How is the determination of function made? Who are the organization members involved in the process? How are decisions regarding allocations made? What criteria are used in the assessment of efficiency? Barker and Briggs suggest that the way many decisions are made regarding the use of personnel is a product of the way the more influential members of the organization choose to exercise their influence and that the choices

made depend on the information at hand. They go on to say that in the absence of a pure normative model for decision-making, decisions are made on the basis of observable facts, subjective impressions, and often on obscure data and incorrect presumptions. If the organization's function is obscure and intangible, a wider range of choices can be made concerning allocations that are satisfactory to all members though they may not be in the best interest of the organization. The more concrete and definitive the functions become, the fewer satisfactory choices that can be made.[3]

With this by way of introduction, Barker and Briggs suggest that the use of the social work team is emerging as one answer to the problem of manpower utilization. The team can be comprised of various blends of multi-level personnel—MSWs, social work associates, aides, indigenous nonprofessionals, volunteers, etc. As an ideal model a social work team would be comprised of the following personnel:

(1) Team Leader*—This person generally has an MSW degree, though it is not necessary that he be such. His primary responsibility is to examine and set the service goals of his team. In order to do that, he must thoroughly consider the needs of the clientele served. He must then consider all the ways that service might be structured to meet those needs. He would, of course, be concerned with the stated objectives of the agency, how his service team fits into those objectives, priorities of service, alternative methods of achieving agency and team goals, and finally, the methodology for differentially allocating tasks to his team members. It is crucial that the team leader be a generalist. That is, he must have broad knowledge about numerous methods, and understand the theoretical framework of service delivery as well as being a pragmatist, in that he must use what works. His position is primarily a managerial one.

(2) The MSW Team Member—This team member most closely approximates the traditional role of the MSW treatment person. His forte would generally be based on the therapeutic relationship. He may work fairly independently within the team while providing consultation to other team members. He may be particularly important in offering social diagnosis. This person often functions as an assistant to the team leader and a substitute for him in his absence. He may be particularly important in integrating the service goals of the entire team.

(3) The Team Specialist—This person may or may not be a person with a great deal of formal education. He will have special knowledge about some specific area of service. The use and choice of the kind of service specialist usually depends on specific agency objectives or charges. For

*It should be noted that in Barker and Briggs' 1968 publication, the team leader was described as always being an MSW and a member of ACSW. In their 1969 publication (from which the descriptions were taken) their position had changed to describing the team leader as probably being an MSW, but that this was not a requirement. There is less emphasis on a hierarchal decision-making structure and more on a multiple inputs system.

instance, on a school social work team there may be a need for a specialist in learning disabilities. His role would relate specifically to the provision of those services within his particular area of expertise, looking to the total service team for the validation of his activities with clients.

(4) The Indigenous Worker—This is a valuable member to the team in that this person often has open communication with a specific client group. This individual often performs as a communication link between a clientele and other members of the service team. As with the team leader, this person is a generalist performing many different functions. The indigenous worker often has very little formal education. He is, however, a valuable member of the team in his unique capacity to establish rapport with a specific client group.

(5) Social Work Associate—This person is generally a four-year college graduate. He is also a generalist and is involved in all phases of a problem-solving effort. He may be the person who coordinates the actual work done by all team members. He is primarily engaged in direct problem solving activities.

(6) The Team Secretary—This person is quite often overlooked in one's concept of a service team. However, the secretary becomes a very valuable member of a service team in performing what is primarily a data management task. She also can perform very beneficial services to clients, since it is through the team secretary that clients often make contact with the agency.[4]

Services are delivered by the team through an "episode of service." This refers to the reflection of agency goals, the evaluation of client need and methodologies to meet those needs, and allocation of responsibilities within the team or the division of labor.

This study sought to field test the overall concept of team service delivery by utilizing students from three different educational levels in a field consortium. It was hoped that this exploratory effort would answer the following questions: 1) Is the team service delivery concept a realistic one for the field? 2) What level students surface in leadership positions? 3) What is the nature of the roles assumed and what is the relationship to educational level?

The Role Model

A companion concept addressed by this study dealt with a newly developed manpower utilization model developed by Teare and McPheeters. Some explanation needs to be given of the conceptual framework in which this model was developed.

There are two basic approaches to staffing—the job factoring approach and the developmental approach. Job factoring is basically an industrial approach of deciding who does what in an organization by separating more complicated tasks from less complicated tasks. Sets of similar tasks are factored out of existing jobs and are used as a basis for creating other

jobs. This approach to staffing is obviously simple and easily applied. Its shortcomings are many. It makes for a clear distinction between "professional" and "non-professional" staff by assigning only simple tasks to less educated personnel. This often results in monotonous jobs for the less educated staff worker. It creates *more jobs* in an agency rather than *new jobs* and consequently only spreads existing functions without expanding the range of services.

The developmental approach begins with an assessment of human (client) need as opposed to existing job configurations. The assumption is that jobs in an agency must be extracted from agency objectives which must be derived from an assessment of the range of service needs recognized by an agency. This approach is obviously more complex than the job factoring approach but its advantages are considerable. It does not assume that existing jobs are arranged in such a manner as to best meet client need; therefore, its application can reveal service gaps and inappropriate agency objectives. In grouping work activity, the criteria emphasized are the range of problems to be met and the purpose of the activity instead of simply the job tasks. Application of this approach creates new and more appropriate jobs instead of just more jobs, thus resulting in the increased likelihood of providing more services to more people. Emphasis is on job flexibility and mobility. Most importantly this approach recognizes the unique competencies and contributions that can be made by personnel at all levels.

Several organizations have developed staffing models or work organization models based on the developmental approach. The W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research is utilizing the functional job analysis method for analyzing agency manpower needs. This method, though industrial in origin, has been redesigned to address manpower problems encountered by social welfare organizations. It employs a systems approach to job analysis and through identifying system and sub-system objectives breaks work down into its simplest form—the task. Each task is then analyzed according to a number of criteria—basically the relationship of the task to data, people, and things. Educational levels are projected and performance standards and training content developed.[5]

Robert J. Teare and Harold L. McPheeters, working on a project sponsored by the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB), have developed a role model based on the developmental approach. By postulating a range of human problems, developing a set of social welfare objectives, and delineating the work activities necessary to accomplish those objectives, SREB projected twelve basic roles for social work personnel:

1) Outreach Worker: implies an active reaching out into the community to detect people with problems and help them to find help, and to follow up to assure that they continue toward as full as possible a fulfillment of their needs.

2) Broker: involves helping a person or family get to the needed services. It includes assessing the situation, knowing the alternative resources, preparing and counseling the person, contacting the appropriate service and assuring that the client gets to it and is served.

3) Advocate: this has two major aspects:
   a. pleading and fighting for services for a single client whom the service system would otherwise reject (regulations, policies, practices, etc.).
   b. pleading or fighting for changes in laws, rules, regulations, policies, practices, etc., for *all* clients who would otherwise be rejected.

4) Evaluator: involves gathering information, assessing client or community problems, weighing alternatives and priorities and making decisions for action.

5) Teacher: includes a range of teaching from simple teaching (i.e., how to dress, how to plan a meal) to teaching courses in budget or home management, to teaching in staff development programs; teaching aims to increase peoples' knowledge and skills.

6) Behavior Changer: includes a range of activities directed to changing peoples' behavior rather precisely. Among them are simple coaching, counseling, behavior modification and psychotherapy.

7) Mobilizer: involves working to develop new facilities, resources and programs or to make them available to persons who are not being served.

8) Consultant: involves working with other persons or agencies to help them increase their skills and to help them in solving their clients' social welfare problems.

9) Community Planner: involves participating and assisting in planning of neighborhood groups, agencies, community agents or governments in the development of community programs to assure that the human service needs of the community are represented and met to the greatest extent feasible.

10) Care Giver: involves giving supportive services to people who are not able to fully resolve their problems and meet their own needs, such as supportive counseling, fiscal support, protective services, day care, 24-hour care.

11) Data Manager: includes all kinds of data gathering, tabulating, analysis, and synthesis for making decisions and taking action. It ranges from simple case data gathering, through

preparing statistical reports of program activities to evaluation and sophisticated research.

12) Administrator: includes all of the activities directed toward planning and carrying out a program such as planning, personnel, budgeting and fiscal operation, supervising, directing and controlling.

The twelve roles postulated by SREB theoretically represent the total range of worker activity that occurs in any social welfare organization. It is important to note that these roles are not jobs but can be grouped or clustered into jobs. The twelve roles are also broken down into four levels. Each of these levels roughly corresponds with educational levels according to the following schema: Level 1 – new careerist, Level 2 – community college graduate, Level 3 – undergraduate social welfare major, Level 4 – Master of Social Work. (See Figure 1) Distinctions between the four levels are based on (1) complexity, (2) risk of doing a bad job, (3) parameters in which the work is carried out or difficulty. According to this model any level worker can and may play all twelve of these roles within the context of service delivery in a social welfare organization.

In summary, the SREB role model emphasizes that (1) any given worker at any level can perform any of the twelve roles, (2) workers at all levels may perform the same roles, (3) worker groups are distinguishable not by the roles performed but by the level at which they perform these roles.

This very new approach to manpower utilization is virtually untested in the field. For this reason, and because of its potential relevancy for both education and the field of practice, one phase of the exploratory study was developed within this conceptual framework to test the applicability of the twelve roles to actual service delivery situations.

Method of Inquiry

The Setting

To be able to field test aspects of both the team concept and the developmental approach it was felt that a non-traditional setting should either be found or developed. On August 9, 1971 a storefront delinquency prevention project was started in a predominantly black neighborhood (Frenchtown) in Tallahassee, Florida–later to be known as Project Somebody. The project had an independent source of funding and was not administratively linked to any existing agency, with the exception of the Leon County Juvenile Court. The court acted as a referral source on unofficial probation cases and administered project finances. The court did not control program development.

The program focus of the project was developed according to the concept of "judicious non-intervention." This concept emphasizes the deterrence of youngsters from official involvement with the juvenile justice

FIGURE I*

POSSIBLE WORK ACTIVITIES FOR

VARIOUS ROLES AND LEVELS OF WORKERS IN SOCIAL WELFARE

(These are not individual jobs)

ROLES →	Outreach	Broker	Advocate	Evaluator	Teacher	Behavior Changer	Mobilizer	Consultant	Community Planner	Care Giver	Data Manager	Administrator
LEVELS												
LEVEL I Entry Aide New Careerist												
LEVEL II Apprentice Technical assistant												
LEVEL III Journeyman Technological Associate												
LEVEL IV Master Professional Specialist												

*Taken from SREB publication—*Manpower Utilization in Social Welfare.*

system while at the same time working to mobilize and coordinate a broad base of community programs and services in their behalf.[7]

The project was directed by a field instructor from Florida State University Department of Social Work, and with the exception of the secretary, was staffed entirely by students. As a field placement the project approximated a combination of three emerging models—the university-operated teaching center where the university actually operates a service program, the community-focused teaching center where students operate from a specified community or neighborhood with an emphasis on community structures and forces, and the social problem-focused teaching center where students work to coordinate services focused on a specified social problem.[8] The only definition given to the setting was the community—Frenchtown—and the problem—a high rate of delinquency. Therefore, Project Somebody offered the opportunity to (1) set up a service program staffed entirely by students, and (2) set up a new program with no tradition, no clear-cut definition of function, no previously defined objectives, and no pre-existent job formulations.

There were nine students involved in the project which ran through December 15, 1971. Three students were from Tallahassee Community College and working on Associate degrees in sociology (with the intention to pursue an undergraduate social welfare major) and criminal justice. Three students were from Florida A&M University and working on baccalaureate degrees in sociology with concentrations in social welfare and corrections. Three students were from Florida State University and working on master's degrees in social work. Initially, the students were grouped together in teams of three (one student from each level), however, this proved to be somewhat problematic for several reasons not related to the study design and all students were grouped into one service team representing three educational levels.

Instruments

Drawing upon Barker and Briggs' conceptual framework regarding the use of teams to deliver social services a questionnaire was designed to secure student perceptions of the team concept. The questionnaire consisted of thirty-six statements concerning the project and the students' involvement in it. Students were asked to "agree" or "disagree" with each statement. In addition to the questions designed to assess the team concept, questions about organizational relationships were developed. How did the students view decision-making? Did they believe they had a voice in defining what was done by themselves and others? What was their view of supervision? How did they see the division of labor? How did they perceive the relationship between level of education and ability to function in the project? Did they seem to develop a feeling of "teamness?" The questionnaire was designed to elicit responses that would be helpful in answering these questions.

An additional section was added in which each student was asked to rate himself and every other student on leadership ability and productivity. This was for the purpose of making comparisons of leadership ability by educational level. The students were also asked to rate themselves as they perceived others would rate them. A final section asked each student to state to what degree he felt that he was part of the team.

It should be stated that the project setting did not attempt to duplicate the "ideal type" of the team as described by Barker and Briggs, but it did embody many of the characteristics and concepts they describe. Three levels of education were represented. The project secretary was not included in the sample. The atmosphere of the setting was relatively unstructured and the students were given considerable latitude in defining problems, needs, agency objectives, methodologies and the division of labor. Students were not briefed on the purpose of the study. All that they were told was that they would work together as a team. No team leader was officially appointed or elected, in order to allow leadership to emerge. The field instructor acted as overall project director but the team had considerable freedom in making decisions about program development and service delivery.

Drawing upon the SREB developmental approach to manpower utilization involving the twelve roles model, a second questionnaire was designed. This questionnaire contained forty-eight statements representing descriptions of the twelve roles projected in the SREB publication *Manpower Utilization in Social Welfare*. Items reflected information about each role with a description of each of the four levels. The descriptive statements were taken directly from the SREB publication with slight modifications. Students were asked to respond by noting the frequency of their performance of each role.

It should be noted that the setting did not provide any Level 1 workers as described in the SREB model. Consequently, more diffusion between levels was expected since it was necessary for someone to perform Level 1 roles. Also, no attempt was made to assign roles or levels to any student. Instead, it was hoped that roles and levels would emerge spontaneously. Responses to this questionnaire were used to answer these questions. Do distinctions emerge between the three student levels? If so, are these distinctions a product of the roles performed or the levels at which they are performed? Do certain roles occur more frequently than others? Do role clusters emerge? To what extent does the data reflect concepts of the "generalist" and the "specialist?"

Both questionnaires were administered twice during the course of the project, once at approximately mid-point and once at conclusion. It was decided that only the final round of responses would be used in the analysis, except where otherwise indicated.

Pilot Study Findings and Implications

Since the size of the sample and the method of data collection made statistical analysis inappropriate, no attempt was made to use inferential statistics. Parts of the data gathered were used as illustrative examples of observable trends with some of those trends indicating directions for future study.

Demographic Data

As stated previously a total of nine students took part in Project Somebody. Three of these students were from the community college level, three from the undergraduate level, and three from the graduate level.

The three community college students ranged in age from 19 to 25. There were two females and one male. All of the community college students were white. Their academic majors were sociology and criminal justice. Two of the students expressed an intention to eventually do graduate work. None of the three students had any previous work experience in a social agency.

The undergraduate students ranged in age from 20 to 22. Two of these students were female and one was male. All of the undergraduate students were black. Their academic majors were sociology, with concentrations in social welfare or corrections. All three expressed the intention to pursue a master's degree. Of the three, only one had previous work experience in a social agency.

The three graduate students ranged in age from 26 to 44. There were two males and one female in this group. Two of the students were white, one was black. All were majoring in social work. Two expressed the intention to complete the Master's degree, while one expressed the intention to pursue a Doctorate degree. All had previous experience in a social agency, though only one had more than one year's experience. Their cumulative experience in a social agency amounted to four and a half years in public welfare and mental health.

The Team Concept

In an attempt to analyze data relative to the team concept, it was decided that it was important to interpret students' responses in two ways—1) the degree to which the components of the team concept were reflected in a joint training situation and 2) the degree of positive or negative feeling about working as part of a team. Consequently, fifteen items were selected by the researchers that were considered to be most critical to the concept of the team and a decision was made as to what response was most appropriate in keeping with the above stated criteria (see Figure 2).

FIGURE II

ITEMS CONSIDERED TO BE MOST CRITICAL TO THE CONCEPT OF TEAM

A. Items on which "agree" was considered to be the most appropriate response:
   1. (Item 1)—Rules and regulations in this agency are reasonable.
   2. (Item 9)—The members of my team have been helpful to me.
   3. (Item 10)—I have a voice in defining what I do here.
   4. (Item 24)—Decisions about what we do in providing services are jointly made by the team.
   5. (Item 32)—I think everyone is doing a good job here regardless of what their educational training has been.
   6. (Item 33)—In general, my clients and the agency seem to expect me to do the same things.

B. Items on which "disagree" was considered to be the most appropriate response:
   1. (Item 7)—I have too little authority to do the things that are asked of me.
   2. (Item 12)—You hardly know what's going on in your own team because no one tells you anything.
   3. (Item 15)—My team members are too "hung-up" with professional status and qualifications.
   4. (Item 19)—The other students on my team are always looking over my shoulder or checking up on what I'm doing.
   5. (Item 23)—All members of my team do about the same thing.
   6. (Item 25)—Everyone on my team "does his own thing" rather than as a team.
   7. (Item 29)—So far what I've been doing in this placement seems to be mostly those things that the other students don't want to do themselves.
   8. (Item 30)—We all seem to be going our separate ways and very little attention has been given to me or my team by anyone in this agency.
   9. (Item 31)—Most of the things that I've learned in school were not related to what I've been doing in this field placement.

In comparing all three student groups as to appropriateness of response on these fifteen items, the findings show that both the community college students and the graduate students responded appropriately 73.3% of the time, while the undergraduate students responded appropriately 100% of the time. This implies that all groups were generally positive about working as part of a team and that their perceptions of the project generally reflected the conceptual framework of the team, with the undergraduate students reflecting both these positions to a more positive degree than either of the other two groups.

The findings that have just been described are supported, in part, by Table 1. This table indicates the self perceptions of each student group relative to their inclusion or involvement in the team. Responses indicate that the undergraduate students were totally positive about their inclusion in the team, while the community college students were both positive and negative, and the graduate students were generally ambivalent. This is particularly interesting in view of the emerging notion of the undergraduate social welfare major as the "generalist." In listing advantages of using social work teams, Barker and Briggs point out that the use of teams enhances specialization.[9] From this beginning research there is an indication that it is the "generalist" who has the most positive feelings about the team concept.

Given the relatively unstructured nature of the project and the new approach to a field training consortium, it was expected that there would be many issues to be resolved over the time the project was in operation. A greater diversity of opinion was to be expected on issues related to agency goals, student roles, and the decision-making process at the beginning of the project than at the end. In an attempt to get some indication of this phenomenon a tabulation was compiled of dissenting responses (the minority opinion expressed by students on each item) both mid-way through the project and again at the conclusion. For example, on Item 3 seven students disagreed and two students agreed, therefore making two dissenting responses. With a total of nine students responding to thirty-six items, there were 91 dissenting responses out of a possible 144* at mid-point in the project, or a mean of 2.5 students dissenting on each item. At final, the number of dissenting responses had been reduced to 60 out of a possible 144, or a mean of 1.7 students dissenting on each item. This same pattern holds true in each of the student groups. The undergraduate students registered less dissension at both mid-point and final than either of the other two groups (.5 at mid-point and .3 at final).

The decline in dissenting responses would tend to support the expectation that there would be a greater diversity of opinion on a number of

*The highest number of dissenting responses possible on any item was 4, since there were nine students responding. Therefore 4 X 36 equals 144, the highest total number of dissenting responses possible.

TABLE I

PERCEPTIONS OF TEAM INVOLVEMENT BY STUDENT GROUPS

		COMMUNITY COLLEGE STUDENTS	UNDER-GRADUATE STUDENTS	GRADUATE STUDENTS	COMBINED GROUPS
POSITIVE	Really a part of my team	1	3	0	6
	Included in most ways	1	0	1	
AMBIVALENT	Included in some ways and not in others	0	0	2	2
NEGATIVE	Don't really feel I belong	1	0	0	1
	Don't work well with anyone on my team	0	0	0	
	TOTALS	3	3	3	9

issues initially, but that the total group would move toward a higher degree of consensus by project conclusion. The movement toward consensus may reflect an attempt to clarify the goals and functions of the project as well as individual role expectations, thus providing a more sound base for decision-making regarding the division of labor within the team. Progressively increasing consensus within the team relates to the concept, described by Barker and Briggs, of creating a facsimile of the normative model for decision-making in order to make satisfactory choices about the division of labor.[10]

According to the Barker and Briggs schema the position of the "team leader" is formalized through appointment by some authority. In this sense, the team leader, therefore, has positional power. In the project, no team leader was appointed or elected. Instead the intention was to identify leadership as it emerged. Therefore in the project, leadership must be considered reputational as opposed to positional.

In an attempt to measure this phenomenon the students were asked to rank every student in the project (self included) as to leadership ability on a scale of 1 to 9, with 1 being the best leader. A mean was computed from all nine rankings given to each student. These means were then combined by student groups so as to give a mean ranking for each student group. Table 2 shows that the undergraduate students as a group were ranked best in leadership ability overall with only a slight difference between the community college students and the graduate students. Again it should be pointed out that in such a small sample, individual personality becomes a critical intervening variable. The data is interesting in that Barker and Briggs state that the team leader is usually an MSW. They also state that the team leader is something of a generalist.[11] At this point in time, educational trends seem to indicate preparing generalists at the undergraduate level and specialists at the graduate level. Agencies utilizing service teams should consider the question–Should the team leader be selected on the basis of his educational level or his competencies? Data from this study, limited though it may be, tends to indicate the latter. Another factor that should be mentioned is the relationship of prior education to the project setting. The nature of the project setting indicated the need for generalist workers. This is not to say that there was no role for the specialist, however, that role may never have developed satisfactorily for the graduate students. When asked if their prior education was related to what they were doing in the project, all of the undergraduate students thought that their prior education was related, whereas, none of the graduate students thought so.

In summary, responses to the first phase of this study indicated that all student groups were generally positive toward field training and working in teams. All student groups generally reflected appropriate responses to the conceptual framework of the team with the undergraduate

students taking the lead in both instances. The students also seemed to be somewhat confused about their role expectations and the general goals of

TABLE 2

RANKING OF LEADERSHIP ABILITY BY STUDENT GROUPS*

		GROUPS BEING RATED		
		COMMUNITY COLLEGE STUDENTS	UNDER-GRADUATE STUDENTS	GRADUATE STUDENTS
GROUPS DOING RATING	COMMUNITY COLLEGE STUDENTS	4.7**	2.9	7.3
	UNDER-GRADUATE STUDENTS	6.2	2.8**	6.0
	GRADUATE STUDENTS	5.1	5.6	4.3**
	OVERALL	5.4	3.7	5.9

*Numbers represent means compiled from rankings of each student on a scale of 1 (best) to 9 (worst).

**These cells represent self-ranking scores only.

the program, but worked to create their own normative structure to clarify the process of decision-making. There was confidence expressed in their ability to perform well and in the ability of others, regardless of educational levels, but all the graduate students and one of the community college students questioned the relevancy of their prior education to their activities in the project. The undergraduate students clearly emerged in a leadership position, though the issues of race, personality, and their preparation as "generalists" were important preconditions.

Additional Considerations

It is important to note that this is an exploratory study and its significance can be found in the implications it holds for future study. The setting and the size of the sample were limiting factors and a replication in a different setting, possibly an established agency using the team concept as a medium for service delivery with a much larger sample, is suggested for further study. More in depth study of selected parts of the team concept seems to be indicated: 1) The notion of the team enhancing specialization needs further study. Indications from this initial effort indicate that the generalist may, in fact, be a more versatile and competent performer in most situations than the specialist; 2) The dynamics involved in creating a normative structure for decision-making need further study to determine how a team operates successfully in a complex organization; and 3) The question of leadership and how it develops within the team provides a new perspective for study regarding the traditional arguments that center around the question—What is supervision? This pilot study by no means answers these questions, but does provide a basis for suggesting future study.

The Role Model

The two factors considered to be most critical to the SREB role model were: 1) the frequency of the roles performed by each of the students, and 2) the levels at which they were performed. For the purpose of analysis, responses to the forty-eight item questionnaire were grouped according to frequency. "Frequent" was considered to be those roles performed more than once a week, and "infrequent" was considered to be those roles performed less than once a week. It should be noted that no Level 1 workers (high school level or less) were included in the project resulting in an important limitation of the study.

Following the conceptual framework of Teare and McPheeters, it was hypothesized that workers would perform at their designated levels. However, it should be noted that the SREB model serves primarily as a rationale for curricular development and as a mechanism for making management decisions concerning the deployment of staff within an organization. In the absence of a preconceived structure for role assignment, roles and levels emerged rather spontaneously within the context of the decision-making process in the team. Within the confines of this study students shared in the process of deciding their roles and at what level they would perform. The responses to the questionnaire highlight the roles and levels that subsequently emerged. Consequently, the data cannot be used to evaluate individual student capabilities, though it does provide some indication of the potential contributions of the model.

In looking at the frequency of roles by levels, Table 3 shows that most activity occurred at Level 1, with a downward progression of frequency to Level 4. Frequency falls off considerably at Level 4. In looking at

individual student groups, the same trend is prevalent with both the undergraduate students and graduate students. However, the community college students registered the greatest role frequencies at Level 2. This is notable in that the conceptual scheme identifies Level 2 as being the technician or community college graduate level. Remembering that the setting contained no Level 1 workers, it could be said that this finding

TABLE 3

ROLE FREQUENCIES IDENTIFIED BY ALL STUDENTS BY LEVEL

ROLES	LEVELS I	II	III	IV	TOTAL
OUTREACH	6	5	1	0	12
BROKER	3	2	2	2	9
ADVOCATE	3	0	0	0	3
EVALUATOR	3	3	3	0	9
TEACHER	5	6	0	0	11
BEHAVIOR CHANGER	8	5	6	5	24
MOBILIZER	2	3	1	0	6
CONSULTANT	4	3	4	1	12
COMMUNITY PLANNER	2	7	0	0	9
CARE GIVER	8	1	3	0	12
DATA MANAGER	6	3	3	1	13
ADMINISTRATOR	2	1	2	0	5
TOTAL	52	39	25	9	

indicates that only the community college students identified themselves at the level of functioning hypothesized as most appropriate for them.

One question that might be raised concerning levels relates to the time factor. Neither the conceptual framework developed by SREB nor this study addresses the question of time involved in performing the twelve roles at any specified level. As an example, one of the descriptions given of a Level 1 community planner is—"observe and report needs of neighborhood." A Level 4 description of that same role is—"participate in planning major state, city, county programs to include social welfare insights in planning."[12] To observe and report a neighborhood need may be almost a casual occurrence. It might consist of asking one person to report on the presence or absence of a particular service, whereas participation in major program planning might require hours of research and study to develop a report for a study committee. It is therefore reasonable to assume that considerably more time is involved in performing higher level roles, and that more actual "incidents" of performance would take place in lower level roles in the same time span. This phenomenon may partially account for the skewing of responses toward greater frequency at lower level roles.

Another major question that must be considered is how role assignments are determined. As previously stated, no attempt was made to assign student groups to their "appropriate" level. Teare and McPheeters imply, in their "Implications" section of *Manpower Utilization in Social Welfare,* that role and level assignments are products of management decisions related to the phenomenon of differential staffing.[13] In that sense, the SREB model serves as a guide for decision-making. Therefore, it should be noted that the levels that emerged do not represent competency for the three student groups, but are probably more reflective of the students' identification of what needed to be done—the definition of the situation—and the students' most comfortable level of functioning.

In looking at the roles performed, Table 3 indicates clearly that some roles received considerably more attention than others. One role was performed with considerably more frequency than others—that of behavior changer. This generally held true in each of the three student groups. Viewing the roles performed with a high frequency,* five emerge—outreach, behavior changer, consultant, care giver, data manager (see Figure 3). Figure 3 also shows a clustering of roles performed with high frequency by each group of students. The undergraduate students performed eight roles with a high frequency. The graduate students performed six roles and the community college students performed four roles. If the "generalist" can be defined by the number of roles performed, then data from this exploratory paradigm suggests that the undergraduate students assumed the position of "generalist" to a greater degree than the other two student

*High frequency roles were defined as those roles which received a frequency designation of at least one-third of the total responses.

groups. However, it should be noted that quantitatively the undergraduate students only performed two more roles than did the graduate students. Therefore, no definitive position can be developed from these findings relative to the concept of "the generalist vs. the specialist." Only the trend toward the "generalist" position by the undergraduate students appears to be identified.

Another interesting question arises when looking at the roles that emerged by student groups. Is there any pattern to the role clusters that developed? Where Teare and McPheeters make no definitive statement about criteria for role clustering, they do suggest that four roles—broker, advocate, teacher, behavior changer—are distinctively client-oriented and that four roles—mobilizer, community planner, administrator, data manager—are distinctively community-oriented.[14] According to these role distinctions, all student groups were oriented more toward client than community though not by a wide margin. Each of the student groups identified roles that were

FIGURE III

ROLE CLUSTERS BY STUDENT GROUPS*

Community College Students

Teacher
Behavior Changer
Care Giver
Data Manager

Undergraduate Students

Outreach
Broker
Evaluator**
Teacher
Behavior Changer
Consultant
Care Giver
Data Manager

Graduate Students

Outreach
Broker
Behavior Changer
Consultant
Community Planner**
Care Giver

Totals

Outreach
Behavior Changer
Consultant
Care Giver
Data Manager

*Roles included are those that registered a frequency of at least one-third total responses

**Roles unique to one student group—not repeated in any other group

oriented to both client and community as well as roles that were not categorized as being distinctively in either grouping by Teare and McPheeters. In view of the project setting this is somewhat surprising. One would have expected a much heavier orientation toward the community in view of the multiplicity of social and economic problems identified in the community. This may indicate a previous orientation toward individual client rather than community on the part of the students, gained either through previous experience (which was quite limited) or academic training. Of course the SREB schema from which these observations are made reflects only a beginning effort at systematic role clustering.

In view of the setting, several other interesting observations can be made. It was expected that the roles of advocate and mobilizer would receive a great deal of attention, since the nature of the clientele and the community would seem to indicate the need for working to protect individual rights and the need for working to secure new services. This was not the case as these two roles were performed only infrequently. This may indicate a need for more curricular content on the sensitive areas of how one goes about working to protect individual rights and to develop new services—the concept of client advocacy. It also raises questions as to how comfortable students, or workers for that matter, feel in performing those roles and how well the real or perceived organizational constraints are understood that may constrict their performance. One inconsistency that occurred in this regard is related to the students' difficulty internalizing many of the activities in which they engaged, into their total role configuration, or job. Part of the study on interorganizational interaction (Section 8) indicates that the graduate students noted a very high number of contacts with numerous community organizations and agencies. Yet these contacts cannot be accounted for in their responses to the role questionnaire to any satisfactory degree. This indicates a difficulty conceptualizing these activities into the twelve roles described or an inability to internalize those activities into their total job. Two questions might be raised about this issue. Did the questionnaire accurately reflect the role model so that work activities could be satisfactorily categorized? Does the model itself provide the degree of comprehensiveness necessary to encompass the broadest range of worker activity?

In summary, responses to the second phase of this study indicate that the student groups are not distinguishable by the level at which they performed the twelve roles. In terms of role frequency, there was considerable overlap in the specific roles performed, with the undergraduate students performing more roles with higher frequency than either of the other two groups. This indicates a trend toward the undergraduate students operating more as "Generalists." Role clusters, as they emerged, indicated a fairly equal distribution of client-oriented roles and community-oriented roles with a weighting toward client-oriented roles. In general, responses

indicate that the SREB role model is helpful in categorizing activities into roles and as a mechanism for developing role configurations, or jobs.

Additional Considerations

It should be restated that the most significant implications of this study are those for future study. The setting and the size of the sample were limiting and a replication in a setting which involves all four worker levels with a much larger sample is indicated. This study has identified certain parts of the model which need more indepth analysis.

This study did not attempt to measure or evaluate performance, consequently the role levels that emerged cannot be considered to be the levels at which the various groups performed most productively. This tends to support the inference of the SREB material that role and level assignments must occur through enlightened management, which is attuned to worker capabilities, using the model as a guide. Further study is indicated to determine if assignment by levels does result in the most productive performance by the indicated worker levels.

It is suspected that the findings of this study showing heavy weighting toward lower level performance were due in part to the time factor involved in performing Level 1 roles as opposed to Level 4 roles. The SREB model does not deal with the time factor and further study is indicated to determine a reasonable time frame for the performance of roles at each of the four levels.

More testing of this model is indicated to assess the concept of the "generalist." There was a trend identified in the study which indicated that the undergraduate students operated more as "generalists" than the other two groups. However, this is based only on the number of roles performed with frequency. This measurement may be insufficient. The question arises as to whether the categorization depends on what one actually does or what one is capable of doing. Conceptually, and in general practice, the role of "specialist" seems to have fallen to the master's level person by default, but where does the community college graduate fit? Is he also a specialist?

More experimentation or further study on methodologies for role clustering is indicated. No attempt was made in this study to control role clustering to identify the clusters that emerged. These clusters did not appear to be totally appropriate to the setting. Should roles be clustered into direct or indirect services or should clustering provide for a blend? What does the administrator need to know about the nature of the clientele, community phenomenon, organizational constraints, and worker characteristics to make sound management decisions?

Responses to the role questionnaire and comparisons to the study on organizational interaction indicate a failure to conceptualize some worker activities into the role model. This indicates a need to examine the model

for comprehensiveness and to more definitively conceptualize each of the twelve roles prior to further testing.

Final Remarks

It should be emphasized that this study is exploratory in nature. The instruments used, though considered to be reflective of the two conceptual models employed and having face validity, were new and untested for reliability. Responses indicated that a number of items were vague and subject to wide interpretation, while other items could have been omitted. The limited size of the sample prevented any attempt at statistical analysis and the findings were primarily meaningful in the identification of trends that would serve as a basis for future study.

This exploratory study has obviously raised more questions than it has answered. However, its greatest contribution is to be found in that fact. As social welfare organizations experiment with new worker types and develop new service programs and as educational institutions strive for more relevancy in curricula, new methodologies must be developed to test new models for manpower utilization and training.

NOTES

[1]Robert L. Barker and Thomas L. Briggs, *Differential Use of Social Work Manpower,* New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1968; Robert L. Barker and Thomas L. Briggs, *Using Teams to Deliver Social Services,* Syracuse: School of Social Work, Syracuse University, 1969.

[2]*Ibid.*

[3]*Ibid.*

[4]*Ibid.*

[5]Sidney A. Fine and Wretha W. Wiley, *An Introduction to Functional Job Analysis,* Washington: The W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, 1971.

[6]Robert J. Teare, Ph.D. and Harold L. McPheeters, M.D., *Manpower Utilization in Social Welfare,* Atlanta: Southern Regional Education Board, 1970.

[7]Michael J. Langley and H. Ray Graves, "The Juvenile Court and the Myth of Individualized Treatment," Paper presented at the Southern Conference on Corrections, Tallahassee: February, 1971.

[8]Kenneth Kindlesperger, "Innovation in Field Instruction in Social Work Education," in *Exploring the Interfaces of Social Work Education,* Boulder, Colorado: WICHE, 1970.

[9]Barker and Briggs, *op. cit.*

[10]*Ibid.*

[11]*Ibid.*

[12]Teare and McPheeters, *op. cit.*

[13]*Ibid.*

[14]*Ibid.*

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A Storefront Training Center and Patterns of Organizational Interaction

Brian Segal

Introduction

Enlightened and progressive care of the juvenile offender has moved a step closer to reality with the development of a community-based storefront operation. Project Somebody is a facility located in the community. It is not an institutional edifice or a bureaucratized social organization but a highly accessible, humanistically oriented program. The feature which sets apart the storefront operation programmatically from other facilities designed to work with the juvenile offender is its smallness of size, its locality relevance to the community, its experimental nature, and its communitarian norm.

Throughout history, deviant acts have created a management problem. The control of such behavior was at least as much an issue for society in the Middle Ages as it is today. Witchcraft, for example, emerged as a mystical and primitive theory for explaining previously incomprehensible behavior. The beliefs which led to the emergence of witchcraft also influenced the societal choices of enforcement procedures to control those labelled as witches. The sordid tales of the Inquisition exemplify the inhuman offences perpetrated by the enforcers on the offenders. Societies' incapacity to understand behavior which did not conform to what the majority of the population deemed acceptable has, in the past, and continues

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in the present, to yield social control measures which are often more abusive than the behavior they are designed to control.

Human incarceration and detention continues to be a major enforcement instrument for the control of deviant behavior. Juvenile delinquency, as only one type of poorly understood behavior, is often controlled by institutionalizing the individual in a large, dehumanized total institution or in archaic detention programs. Historically, total planning has been the hallmark of such institutions. Often, the caretakers who have been burdened by the management needs of massive and usually overcrowded institutions, exercised near absolute control so as to standardize the life-styles of the many hundreds of inmates who ostensibly have been admitted or committed for treatment. Under such conditions intolerable circumstances for the offender often develop and the emotional state which precipitated admission tends to be overshadowed by the adverse affects of institutionalization. Although major reforms are underway in many detention facilities and total institutions to reduce abusive tendencies and to humanize and modernize treatment procedures, major forces for innovative alternatives to custodial care and archaic treatment procedures are gaining impetus in prisons, juvenile correctional institutions, and within the boundaries of the community system. One such fascinating innovation is the storefront operation to which our attentions are directed.

Problem

Services for the juvenile delinquent are part of and dependent upon the total network of arrangements by means of which individuals and communities solve problems. In a rapidly growing society with a rampant technology the need to differentiate functions for a community becomes paramount. Therefore, a high degree of specialization in services offered to meet particular needs results. This high degree of specialization in the human services often fragments both the individual and the helping process. Thus, while we have been experiencing a major breakdown in service delivery in the last few years, new concepts such as "comprehensive," "continuity of care" and "follow up" are again filtering through the professional jargon and literature.

While many organizations provide lip-service to the need for coordination and cooperation with other agencies, they maintain their own organizational boundaries and their own turf. The problem of organizations relating to each other is becoming one for important consideration since the era of professional domination of services is giving way to greater participation on the part of clients in the service network. The inclusion of the clients in policy-making decisions in agencies has led agencies to become aware that coordination and cooperation with other agencies is essential for more efficient client service.

Project Somebody represents an attempt to develop preventative programs designed to decrease the prevalence and incidence of juvenile delinquency on the one hand and on the other to divert juveniles from the juvenile justice system to a community-based program so as to block the early initiation of a secondary deviance process.[1] One of the great paradoxes of human service delivery systems is that they may exacerbate or perpetuate the very problems they seek to ameliorate and by so doing, foster conditions of what Lemert has called secondary deviance. He says that, "Such deviance evolves out of adaptations and attempted adaptations to the problems created by official reactions to original deviance."[2] The diversion of the juvenile delinquent from the bureaucratic court procedures and from incarceration and detention is intended to decrease the possibility of secondary deviance. It is understood that secondary deviance results from the interaction of people and organizations which have been set up to deal with the deviant. This interaction while intended to have an ameliorative effect on the individual, often has the opposite effect of catalyzing further deviance. Any change in the problem of person versus organization must not only focus on the person but must focus on the organizational system.

Theoretical Framework[3]

The objective of this research endeavor is to measure the organizational impact of the storefront delinquency prevention program on existing community agencies which are presently structured to deal with the problem of delinquency. There is a growing body of literature on organizational interaction in sociology, public health, and social work. This work began about ten years ago and now includes about twenty-six papers. This research project will utilize significant variables reported in the literature as foci for measurement.

The previous work on interorganizational relations has primarily utilized two basic models: the intra-agency model[4] and the human service system model.[5] The intra-agency model focuses on internal processes of a particular agency and utilizes such variables as size of agency, goals of agency, authority structure of agency and division of labor to predict the pattern of agency interactions with other organizations. The data sources are employees and case records. The human service system model focuses on the patterns of interactions among all the human service agencies within a particular functional and geographic boundary. Here the emphasis is on the system — its dimensions and properties. The human service system model will be utilized in this study. This model conceptualizes interactions between agencies as exchanges and develops various means of measuring the exchanges. The exchanges include clients, funds, personnel, facilities and equipment.

How does one measure organizational impact? While operationalizing "impact" as a measurable concept is somewhat elusive, the measurement of

a relationship between two social objects is more feasible. It is suggested that an effective way of measuring the impact one organization (focal organization) has on another organization is to measure the relationships the focal organization has with organizations in its environment. Organizational relationships may be measured through intrapersonal, interpersonal and intersystem levels of measurement. Intrapersonal measures of organizational relationships are those most often determined by inference. Specifically, attitudinal changes on the part of persons occupying roles at the boundary of intersecting agencies towards these agencies can provide indications of changes in interorganizational cooperative arrangements. This level of measurement, however, cannot be assumed to be indicative of organizational interaction. For example, a change in attitude or value about or towards an organization does not necessarily mean that organizations have interacted. It is thus necessary to move to other levels of analysis and measurement to get a more accurate picture of organizational interaction.

The second level of measurement examines interpersonal interactions. Interpersonal measurements of organizational interactions can be examined through the frequency, quantity and content of interactions between individuals occupying roles at the borders of intersecting agencies. Examination of both intrapersonal and interpersonal measurement of organizational interactions are only inferences of relationships between organizations and cannot be viewed as the total manifestations of organizational interactions. Because person A from agency A interacts with person B from agency B, it may not be that agency A and agency B are interacting. It is somewhat difficult to infer interactions between social collectivities by reviewing interactions between roles. Thus, information collected at the intrapersonal and interpersonal level must be viewed as important but supplementary data which can be used to reinforce the results found by attempting to measure intersystem relations.

The third level of measurement examines the relationships between systems. Intersystems relationships can ultimately be measured by a review of policy changes on the part of the interacting organizations. As policies are typically slow to change and develop, a more immediate measure of interaction between systems is the mediums of exchange that are shared between the interacting agencies. Specifically, the exchanges include the following: funds, staff, equipment and facilities, and clients.[6] In the human services system, various sectors would be involved in organizational relationships. Health agencies would be interacting with welfare agencies; welfare agencies with education agencies, and so on.

The Research Design

This study is a descriptive research project which will attempt to identify the "organization set"[7] of Project Somebody. An organization set is defined as the pattern of interactions among a designated agency (focal

agency) and other human services agencies. In this case, the focal agency is Project Somebody and the related agencies are those within the human services network with which Project Somebody has established contact. It is assumed that if an organization has begun to make an impact on other human services organizations, the manifestations of this impact will be visible through the organizational interactions with those agencies. These interactions are measured by exchanges between the agencies and interpersonal contacts between personnel.

The research design includes on-site data collection. Three questionnaires were used to collect data on the cases, staffing and agencies in the organization set. The case questionnaire aimed at ascertaining demographic characteristics, information about length of delinquent career, social service need, services provided and follow up. The staff questionnaire gathered demographic information, orientation toward client information, role perception responses and data about the number, frequency and content of interactions with other agencies, and the nature of exchanges with other agencies. The third interview schedule collected data on the perceptions held by staff in other agencies towards the goals, functions, operating procedures and services of Project Somebody.

From Pyramid to Circle

The development of Project Somebody as a storefront unit in the community had as its goal the provision of a de-bureaucratized humanistic approach to the juvenile offender. Thus, it represented an interorganizational pattern of service delivery, rather than a bureaucratic orientation. The storefront was searching for an alternative care system, a supportive network in which the client could have access to service within a meaningful environment without much red tape. While program changes can be legislated, cooperation at the local level does not necessarily flow from legislative changes. It must be cultivated and nourished. Cooperation that involves a vast array of social agencies representing health, education and welfare both in the private and public sectors must be actively developed. Table I provides information on the extent of the contacts developed by the student staff at Project Somebody.

Community organization and social welfare agencies along with education agencies accounted for the largest block of organizations with whom the staff made contact. Correction and law enforcement programs while numbering less accounted for nearly one quarter (25%) of the contacts. Community organizations, social welfare and education programs also played a major role in the organizational system to which Project Somebody was directing its interaction. As one looks at Table I further, it becomes apparent that the sphere of interaction is predominantly within the community organization and welfare sector. While the data is insufficient to make any definitive remarks it would seem plausible that the orientation

TABLE I
Interorganizational Contacts

Sector	Number of Agencies Contacted	Percentage of Total Number of Agencies Contacted
Health Agencies	3	.05%
Education Agencies	16	15.9%
Community Organization and Social Welfare Agencies	22	56%
Correction and Law Enforcement Agencies	10	22%
Recreation	2	6%
Religious	2	.05%
TOTAL	55	100%

of the students' own learning plays a major role in the direction of agency contacts. One wonders whether the preponderance of contacts would have been in the social service and welfare sector if all the students had been criminology majors.

A question for further examination might attempt to discern the rationale for contacts and whether the contacts were functionally related to organizational need, staff need or client need. Although we often relate with those with whom we are most comfortable, this may not always represent organizational need or client service requirements. What is most interesting about this data is the extent to which the students were able to reach so many agencies in such a short period of time. It must be remembered that other agencies were not mandated to interact with Project Somebody but began to be involved in the cooperative venture.

TABLE II
Reciprocal Contacts

Interpersonal Contacts	Number	Percent
Initiated by Project Somebody	471	80
Initiated by Other Agencies	117	20
TOTAL	588	100%

From Table II it can be seen that one-fifth (20%) of the contacts Project Somebody staff had with staff at other agencies were initiated by the other agency. This is an impressive number when one considers the newness of the program. This data reflects the beginnings of reciprocal interactions between the new agency and older established programs. From the data,

one gets a feeling of dynamic interplay of a variety of agencies converging their resources and programs towards greater cooperation.

The contacts which were initiated by the other agencies were broken down in order to review which sector initiated most contacts with Project Somebody. The breakdown is provided in the following Table:

TABLE III
Percentage of Reciprocal Contacts by Sector

Sector	Percentage of Contacts Initiated by Project Somebody	Percentage of Contacts Initiated by Other Agencies	Total
Health	100%	0%	100%
Community Organizations and Social Welfare Agencies	70%	30%	100%
Welfare Agencies	90%	10%	100%
Correction and Law Enforcement Agencies	66%	34%	100%
Recreation	90%	10%	100%
Religious	100%	0%	100%

From Table III it can be seen that staff in correction and law enforcement agencies initiated the greatest number of contacts with Project Somebody. Education agency staff as well had a relatively high percentage of reciprocal contacts with Project Somebody (30%). It is very interesting to note that while the greatest percentage of contacts that the staff at Project Somebody had was with community organization and social welfare agencies, the percentage of reciprocal contacts on the part of these agencies with Project Somebody was actually less than those of education and law enforcement and correction agencies. The kind and nature of interactions that goes on among agencies are effected by the particular functions which the agency carries out, their access to elements from outside their own particular system and the degree to which they are dependent upon other agencies to fulfill their own functions. What may be happening with the interaction patterns of agencies connected in some way with Project Somebody is that those agencies which have the greatest number of their needs met from within their own bureaucracy need not reach out as much as those which require external input to survive. In other words, correction, law enforcement and education agencies may have a greater need for the particular services which Project Somebody is offering than do community organization and social welfare agencies. This may also be due to the lack of definition of organizational domain on the part of Project Somebody which sufficiently differentiated it from other social welfare agencies. It seems from the above data that further organizational interactions involving

Project Somebody and social welfare and community organization agencies should focus on how Project Somebody can be useful to these agencies in a reciprocal kind of relationship.

The data supports the notion that this experimental project has the potential for providing an alternative to the unitary bureaucracy for human care systems. Thus, rather than talk about a theory of bureaucracy to describe Project Somebody, we need to think about a theory of confederation or of organizational alliance.[9] On what basis and around what needs are agencies interacting with Project Somebody?

Search for Cooperation

A content analysis was made of the responses of all students concerning the cooperation they were receiving from other agencies. Furthermore, a specific analysis of the content of the contacts was as well conducted. As a result of the content analysis, the types of cooperation and particularly the types of contacts with the other agencies were classified in the following eight categories: 1) more referrals; 2) more or better case information; 3) increased personal services to clients; 4) demand for more non-human resources (equipment, technical information, space, etc.); 5) more money; 6) more information on other agency services; 7) more planning and coordination; 8) more human resources.[10]

Although there was considerable difference in the content of the contacts and the number of contacts which the students from Florida State University, Tallahassee Community College and Florida A&M University had, the patterns are quite similar when the eight types of cooperation are ranked and particularly when we view the percentage figures exhibited in Table IV.

TABLE IV
Content Analysis of Interactions

Type of Cooperation Sought	Number of Contacts	Percentage of Total Contacts
1. More referrals	9	2%
2. Better case information	145	24%
3. More or better personal services to clients	94	16%
4. More non-human resources	35	6%
5. More money	3	.5%
6. More information on the other agency services	220	36.5%
7. More planning and coordination	59	10%
8. More human resources	23	5%
TOTAL	588	100%

The reason for which contact was made with other agencies was overwhelmingly to seek or share information. Obviously the impact of Project Somebody was intended to be felt through this public relations effort. The greatest number of contacts (36.5%) made with other agencies was to acquire more information and to share information about Project Somebody. This indicates that much student time was spent in presenting the image of the Project to the community.

Even though the staff were very much involved in the institution building process and were concerned with the impact that the agency had on other organizations in the community, if we look at the categories of seeking information for clients and seeking better services for clients we see that these categories occupy 40% of staff contacts as compared to 37% of staff contacts related to public relations. Thus, while the public relations aspect of the program certainly required much staff resources, it would seem from this data that the client was not ignored.

With this data in mind it is important to think of the evolution of Project Somebody in lieu of the evolution of another bureaucratic structure. It is interesting to compare a bureaucracy and an interorganizational cooperative arrangement in terms of how service is actually delivered.

> In a bureaucracy, authority and responsibility are delegated internally from position to position and office to office to handle problems effectively. Where leverage of position is reduced, the handling of problems is less through formal structure, and is more often shared by specific agreement or is presented by those who have responsibilities and problems but no right of command to those who possess competence and such means of accomplishment as an access to a necesary population.[11]

This results in a sharing of responsibilities and problems when organizations discover mutual and reciprocal advantages in their relationships. Delegation of responsibility is lateral and horizontal rather than vertical, and it is voluntary rather than mandatory. In short, it is a process of sharing problems and of domains of works, under very limited monetary agreements. We can think of this method of delivery of services as an organizational invention, or rather an interorganizational invention having some major consequences for the client and the organization. It is truly a movement from pyramid to circle structure of service delivery.

Every form of human organization, however, has essential problems to solve. Bureaucracies, as we all know, continuously enmesh us in hierarchical authority structures which require standardized procedures to which no exceptions are made, and to which all of us have succumbed at one point or another. The interorganizational invention or cooperative itself has many problems. One of the problems of course is continuity of care and how the client moves from one organization to another. This by the way is also a problem confronted by bureaucracies. They too must refer clients from their system to another system and thus, having a cooperative system

immediately presents the organizational contacts for more effective referral processes. The web, therefore, of this complex system of organization into a cooperative arrangement increases the chances that human services will be delivered more effectively in a more humanistic manner.

Some Notes on Role Perception

All students were requested to respond to a question asking whether they felt that their job included public relations. Of the nine students, they all responded affirmatively to this question. In addition, it was found from the data that seven was the mean number of hours spent by the students doing public relations work in the community. Table V which follows provides a further breakdown according to the educational level of the student.

TABLE V

Differential Contacts by Educational Level

	Mean Number of Contacts Per Student
Sophomore	13
Senior	52
Graduate	165

From the data presented in Table V it becomes clear that the graduate students had a great many more contacts than either senior or sophomore students with other social agencies within the organizational cooperative. The number of contacts decreases as one moves down from the graduate level to the sophomore level. This is interesting in light of the fact that all groups felt that public relations was equally part of their job. It may well have been that graduate students felt more comfortable dealing with other professionals in agencies in the community than did the other two groups of students. It might be interesting to get some indication as to why the senior and sophomore level students were not as comfortable in this role.

Another area of student contacts dealt with the relationship between Project Somebody and the profit-making enterprises in the community. Table VI provides a breakdown of this information.

TABLE VI

Entrepreneurial Contacts by Level

Level	Number of Enterprises Contacted	Number of Contacts
Sophomore	8	14
Senior	22	115
Graduate	27	169

It is fascinating to note the extent to which the students were able to make contact with community enterprises. A similar pattern emerges in which graduate students have more contacts with more enterprises than the other two groups of students. An analysis of the reasons for the contacts with community enterprises reveals that seeking donations both in kind and cash was the greatest single reason for contact with these enterprises. Seeking placements for clients was also one of the reasons for reaching out.

Organizational Exchanges

We have spent time examining the relationship of Project Somebody to other agencies in the human services sector by analyzing the content and number of contacts which the staff of Project Somebody had with personnel in these agencies. This has provided us with the interpersonal dimension to our analysis. A further way of analyzing how agencies are actually interacting is to measure the exchanges which these agencies have together. The elements which agencies generally exchange are funds, staff, clients, equipment, facilities and other non-human resources. The following figure provides a breakdown of the kinds of exchanges Project Somebody has had with other community organizations.

FIGURE I

Exchanges Between Project Somebody and Its Organizational Cooperative Members

Sector	Number of Exchanges			
	Funds	Staff	Clients	Equipment & Facilities
Public	1	8	3	1
Private	6	5	—	6

"Organizational exchange is defined as any voluntary activity between two organizations which has consequences, actual or anticipated, for the realization of their respective goals or objectives."[12] The need for exchange between organizations becomes much more of a reality when we realize that the essential elements required for the functioning of every organization are not in infinite supply but are scarce. Under conditions of scarcity it becomes obvious that interorganizational exchanges are essential to the goal attainment of the organizations participating.[13] Figure I indicates that exchanges between Project Somebody and cooperative members of its organizational alliance revealed a much smaller number of interactions than we saw with the personal contacts of the staff members. One of the assumptions is that the interpersonal contacts that the staff had with other agencies did not necessarily indicate that these agencies actually

had a relationship going on with each other. In fact, the actual number of agencies in the public sector with which Project Somebody had exchanges was eleven (11); the number in the private sector was fifteen (15). This is a significantly lower number than was reported earlier on the interpersonal level. Although these findings must still be taken as inconclusive, it would seem that while one expects interpersonal contacts to act as an enabler for the development of cooperative relationships amongst agencies, this does not necessarily filter up through organizational lines to actually encourage the exchange of programs, funds, staff and equipment between agencies. On the positive side, however, it must be noted that such a neophyte was able to be a party to a significantly large number of exchanges. It would of course be interesting to have another look at the number of exchanges within another four or five months and one would hypothesize that as the personal contacts between the staff of Project Somebody and other personnel in other agencies increases, so will the exchanges increase.

Organizational Domain and Perceptions

Obviously there can be little exchange of clients, funds, equipment and supplies between organizations which do not know of each other or are misinformed as to each other's functions. An important aspect of spending much time on information sharing in the community deals with the need for the development of an organizational domain. Domain of an organization consists of a specific goal it wishes to pursue and a function it seeks to undertake in order to achieve these goals.[14] In operational terms, organizational domain refers to the claims that an organization stakes out for itself in terms of 1) problem or disease covered, 2) population served, and 3) services rendered.[15] The importance of information-sharing deals with helping other agencies to become familiar with the domain of Project Somebody. The task is, therefore, to look at the way in which a sample of agencies with whom Project Somebody has had interaction perceives the goals and functions of the Project. I will begin with an example of a misconception of organizational domain. One member of a particular agency was asked who are the staff of Project Somebody and where are they from. The response was "Local ministerial leaders and revolutionary leaders from a combination of 1950 civil rights groups mixed in with a smattering of college students and dissatisfied youths." When this individual was asked what he felt the project was actually doing now, the response was, "Probably making an awful lot of people angry." The individual was then asked if he felt that Project Somebody was beneficial and the response was, "No, it needed better organization, particularly it needed to be more willing to consider a different side of an issue." This kind of response indicates that, as apolitical as Project Somebody was designed to be, some people always need to identify an agency at one end or another of a political spectrum. This by the way was certainly the exception and not the rule.

The content analysis of the responses of other agency personnel to the goals of Project Somebody revealed a fairly consistent pattern of accurate knowledge about the staffing patterns and goals of Project Somebody. There was a very strong consensus of opinion that Project Somebody was beneficial to the youth in Frenchtown by providing them services which would hopefully result in alternatives to official court intervention, beneficial to participating educational institutions, and beneficial to other community agencies and organizations by providing a mechanism for sharing and coordinating use of resources relative to services for the delinquent and pre-delinquent. A major source of criticism came from a local community agency which felt that there were not enough specific services offered by the Project for the community and these services were not cognizant of the needs of the black people in the community.

In summary, the sample of organizations which were questioned as to their perceptions of the role and function of Project Somebody were fairly consistent in their understanding of the direction this agency was moving. This clearly attested to the tremendous ground work prepared through interpersonal relationships by the students in interacting with these other agencies, in publicizing the role of Project Somebody and in sharing information vis-a-vis the directions and tasks before them. The organizational domain of Project Somebody seemed to be clearly transmitted and there were generally very few feelings that this was a duplication of any existing service. On the contrary, there were many feelings that this was a needed locality relevant service for Frenchtown youth and specifically for the delinquent and pre-delinquent. The clarification of organizational domain is important for domain consensus between two agencies.

Continuity of Care

Much has been said about the impact of Project Somebody on other organizations and the effects of this impact on interpersonal contacts, perceptions and exchanges. What about the effect on the client? Does the client benefit from a cooperative arrangement between agencies and in what way?

The concept of continuity of care is defined as the referral of a case and supporting records from the Program to a human service agency in order to continue or to initiate service thought necessary by the program staff.[16] Continuity of care is the construct used to study the commonplace referral activity in a human service agency. Human service delivery systems are more often characterized as having discontinuous rather than continuous care.

The development of a cooperative alliance between agencies is conducive to a greater continuity of care for the client. It stands to reason that the greater the number of agencies with which Project Somebody interacts the more likelihood that continuity of care will be available for

the clients. A possible effect of interaction between Project Somebody and other agencies is more comprehensive care for the client.

In our sample, there were 19 cases studied. Figure II describes the referral sources.

FIGURE II
Client Referral Sources

Source	Number of Referrals
Self	1
School	1
Friend	2
Juvenile Court	10
Police	1
Drop In	4
TOTAL	19

From the chart it can be seen that the largest number of referrals came from juvenile court. While it is difficult to map out the exact process through which a client moved while involved in the storefront, we were able to collect data on the service outcome of each case. Continuity of care was satisfied if after a service need was identified, the case was referred, records were sent and follow-up was made. Table VII presents the findings.

From the descriptive data in Table VII it can be seen that in 12 out of the 19 service categories there was greater continuity of care than discontinuity. In three of the services, psychiatric treatment, psychological testing and academic placement there were as many discontinuous services as continuous. In four of the services, vocational counseling, vocational placement, legal services, and group work with fathers, there were more cases which were discontinuous than continuous. It is interesting to note that vocational services were considered within the health sector which received an extremely low number of interagency contacts.

While there is no basis for comparison it would seem that the Project Somebody clients have faired extremely well in terms of being a part of a continuous flow system of service. The network of agencies within the organization set of Project Somebody provided a positive alliance in which client needs could be met.

Summary and Conclusions

Project Somebody is an interorganizational invention. It reflects a humanistic thrust towards service delivery and attempts to promote the idea of a voluntary cooperative alternative to the more traditional bureaucratic mechanisms. It has succeeded in developing organizational linkages,

TABLE VII

Continuity of Care by Social Service Need
Number = 19

Service	Value	
	Continuous Care	Discontinuous Care
Academic Counseling	10	3
Vocational Counseling	3	2
Academic Placement	2	2
Vocational Placement	0	1
Vocational Training	2	1
Psychiatric Treatment	4	4
Casework with:		
Client	9	0
Father	3	1
Mother	7	0
Client with Family	14	2
Group Work with:		
Client	9	1
Father		2
Client with Family	3	2
Financial Assistance	3	4
Psychological Testing	7	2
Psychological Counseling	3	3
Legal Assistance	0	3
Religious Counseling	4	2
Home Visits	14	0

particularly on the service level, which has had a positive impact on the clients' accessibility to services. From the efforts of the staff in public relations and information sharing with other agencies in the community, these agencies in parallel sectors have come to understand the purpose of the storefront and give every indication of interest in strengthening an already established relationship.

An institution building process requires much effort in planning, coordination, and administration. This is not a simple process. Certainly from the service perspective at the level of service delivery, planning and cooperation amongst the agencies included in the data has indicated Project Somebody is having a very positive impact on the clients. The spirit of the innovation of the Project filters through many people and many organizations. As an experiment in creative service delivery, the program needs to be continued.

NOTES

[1]Edwin M. Lemert, *Instead of Court. Diversion in Juvenile Justice.* National Institute of Mental Health, Center for Studies of Crime and Delinquency, Washington, D. C., 1971.

[2]*Ibid.*, p. 13.

[3]The author expresses gratitude to Michael Baizerman for his conceptual clarification. The theoretical framework is in part based on Michael Baizerman, *A Research Proposal for the Study of Agency Interaction Among Comprehensive Programs for Pregnant Teenagers and Other Human Service Agencies.* Unpublished. University of Pittsburgh, 1971.

[4]R. M. Stogdill, "Dimensions of Organizational Theory," in James O. Thompson and V. H. Vroom, eds. *Organizational Research and Design.* Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1971, pp. 3-56.

[5]See S. Levine, P. White and B. Paul. "Community Interorganizational Problems in Providing Medical Care and Social Services," *American Journal of Public Health,* 1963, 58 (8), p. 1183-1195. Also S. Levine and P. White, "Exchanges as a Conceptual Framework for the Study of Interorganizational Relations," *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 1961. 6, 583-601, and B. Clark, "Interorganizational Patterns in Education," *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 10 (2), pp. 224-237.

[6]S. Levine and P. White, *op. cit.*, 1961.

[7]William M. Evan, "The Organization-Set: Toward a Theory of Interorganizational Relations," in James O. Thompson and V. Vroom, *op. cit.*, 1971, pp. 173-192.

[8]S. Levine and P. White, *op. cit.*, 1961.

[9]For further discussion on organizational alliance, see B. Clark, *op. cit.*, 1965.

[10]Based on categories suggested by S. Levine, P. White and B. D. Paul, *op. cit.*, 1963, p. 1187.

[11]B. Clark, *op. cit.*, p. 234.

[12]S. Levine and P. White, *op. cit.*, 1966, p. 588.

[13]S. Levine, P. White and B. D. Paul, *op. cit.*, 1963, p. 1185.

[14]*Ibid.*

[15]*Ibid.*, p. 1191.

PART IV

SERVICE DELIVERY AND TRAINING — FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Criminal Justice and Social Welfare:

Two Emerging Systems in Search of Linkages in the Areas of Service Delivery, Manpower Utilization, and Educational Program Planning*

Michael J. Austin and J. Price Foster

Aspects of the fields of criminal justice and social welfare have roots in American society dating back to the beginning of this nation's history. One of the early links between social welfare and aspects of criminal justice occurred in the late 1800's with the First National Conference on Charities and Corrections. Viewed in this way, it is apparent that the field of social welfare and at least the correctional component of criminal justice have a shared heritage now almost a century old. Since this conference, the correctional component of both criminal justice and social welfare has experienced some conceptual and philosophical maturation, and at times it appeared as though there were few, if any points of linkage between the fields—either philosophically or methodologically.

In recent years, possible areas of linkage between corrections and social welfare have received renewed emphasis and identity. Further, because

*This paper draws upon the collaborative thinking of Dr. Travis Northcutt, Dr. Frank Sistrunk, Mr. Ray Graves, Mr. Phil Smith, and Miss Shirley Brunson who all serve on the staff of the Florida Board of Regents and results from a Workshop on the Interface between Criminal Justice and Social Welfare held at Wakulla Springs on December 10, 1971.

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criminal justice and social welfare have begun a process of self-conceptualization toward a systems approach, there are broader implications of commonality and a need to assess both with a view toward other common grounds. One of the stimulants toward this need to reconceptualize the two fields is the recent flood of national legislation affecting both crime and poverty and the resultant impetus to improve services to people, to improve our use of manpower, and to provide future directions for our educational institutions which are preparing manpower to function effectively in terms of rapid social change.

As Ramsey Clark has recently indicated, there is a growing recognition as to the linkage between poverty and crime.[1] The fact that high crime rates have been reported in areas where there exists poor housing, poor health care facilities, poor educational facilities, and rampant poverty, provides a clear indication that environmental factors such as these play key roles in explaining our increase in crime. It should also be noted that areas which have high crime rates attract more attention from law enforcement agencies resulting in higher and better statistics than might be compared to white collar crime or crime in suburbia. As rapid technological change continues to put more and more persons out of work, we see radical increases in crimes against property as well as steady increases in our welfare roles. These facts require us to take a systems view of both phenomena in order to move away from the public conception that poverty leads to crime and vice versa. There exists a multiplicity of factors, both environmental and behavioral, that affect both the systems of Criminal Justice and Social Welfare.

It has only been in recent years that the field of criminal justice has been conceptualized as a system including law enforcement, court adjudication, and corrections.[2] As Richard Myren recently observed:

> "Although interested parties speak about a criminal justice system. . . such entities do not in fact exist. Instead, each jurisdiction has a collection of independent criminal justice agencies and operate with only minimal contact among them. It is only in the last five years that there has been even system *thinking*, to say nothing of system action."[3]

There is a growing body of literature which suggests some of the reasons for this condition. Perhaps the most accurate single statement which focuses on the basis of the problem is that of Dr. Vernon Fox some years ago. Fox observed that the component parts of criminal justice have become too involved with obtaining the primary and immediate objectives of their part of the process and have neglected the fact that the overall goal is one of social control.[4] This preoccupation with immediate objectives has contributed to the growing criticism of overloaded courts, correctional services which fail to rehabilitate, and inadequately trained law enforcement agencies.

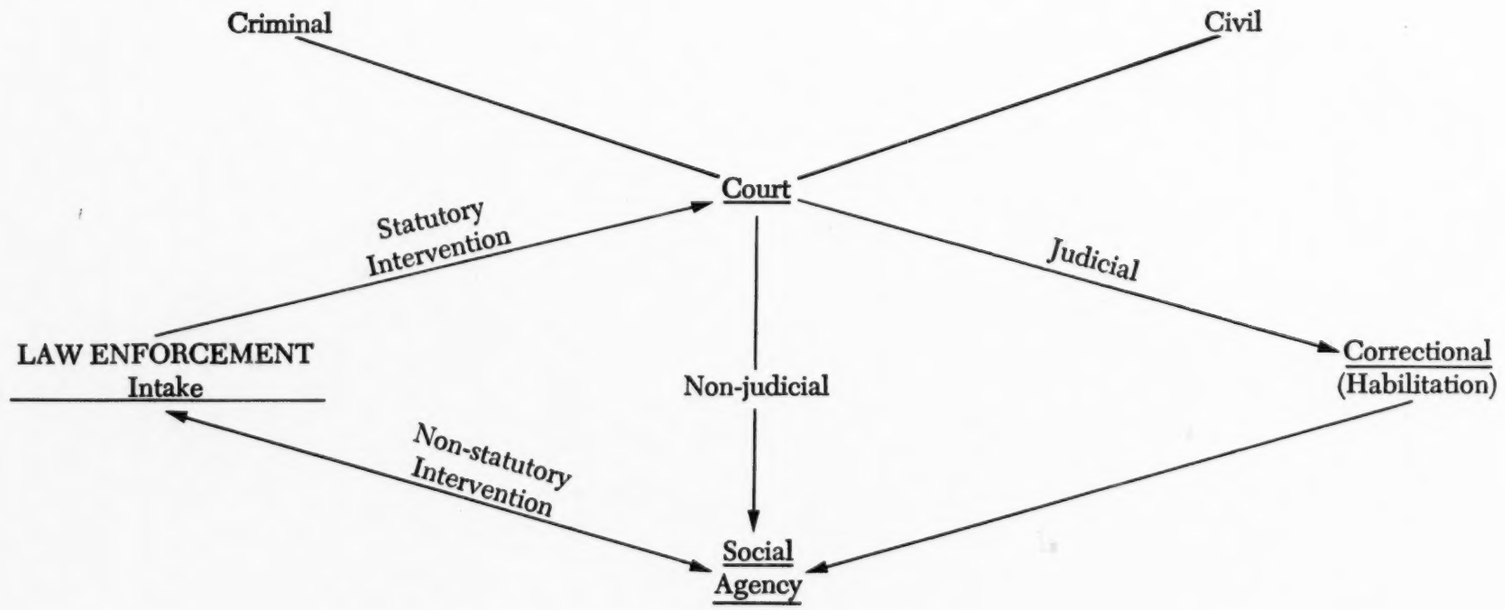
While we have conceptualized criminal justice and social welfare in terms of a systems approach, it is clear that both are having difficulty integrating their various components into a coherent system today. However, this should not preclude the possibility of viewing them both as emerging systems in order to identify the important areas of potential linkage. The three areas of service delivery, manpower utilization, and educational planning will be used as organizing themes for identifying the various points of system linkage.

Service Delivery

In order to assess service delivery, it was necessary to identify the points of entry by any given person into each system. In the system of criminal justice, it became quite obvious that the entry point involved an intake process primarily in the area of law enforcement. This intake process has two major components which determine the manner in which an individual will move through the criminal justice system. The first type of intake has been labeled Statutory Intervention. By this we mean that an individual has required the involvement of law enforcement authorities due to the clear violation of an existing statute. The second form of intake has been labeled Non-statutory Intervention. In this case, an individual has come in contact with law enforcement authorities but has not clearly violated an existing statute (e.g., involuntary commitments to mental hospitals). This area of intake involves considerable sensitivity and discretion by law enforcement authorities since a judgement is being made in which the individual is being kept out of the court system on the one hand and his problems need to be thoroughly assessed in order to refer the individual to a non-adjudicatory institution or social agency (e.g., family counseling in no-fault divorce case). The manner in which an individual moves through the criminal justice system becomes more clear as indicated in Figure 1. In the case of Statutory Intervention, the individual generally moves to the court arena in either criminal or civil proceedings. In this area the court has discretion which has been labeled Judicial in contrast to Non-judicial Intervention. Judicial Intervention may lead to the need for correctional habilitation through some institutional or field service arrangement related to the legal proceedings of the court (probation, prisons, halfway houses, etc.). In the case of Non-judicial Intervention the courts may decide to refer the individual to a social agency which may include some probationary period but in essence removing the individual from any possible punishment experience and instead viewing the needs of the individual in more rehabilitative terms. The intent of social agencies is the return of the individual to normal functioning in the society. In the case of correctional habilitation there is a similar goal; however, confinement and/or punishment as well as treatment are the objectives seen by the court.

FIGURE I

CRIMINAL JUSTICE SERVICE DELIVERY SYSTEM



Similar to a social agency, the correctional facility is designed to return the individual to legal functioning in the society.

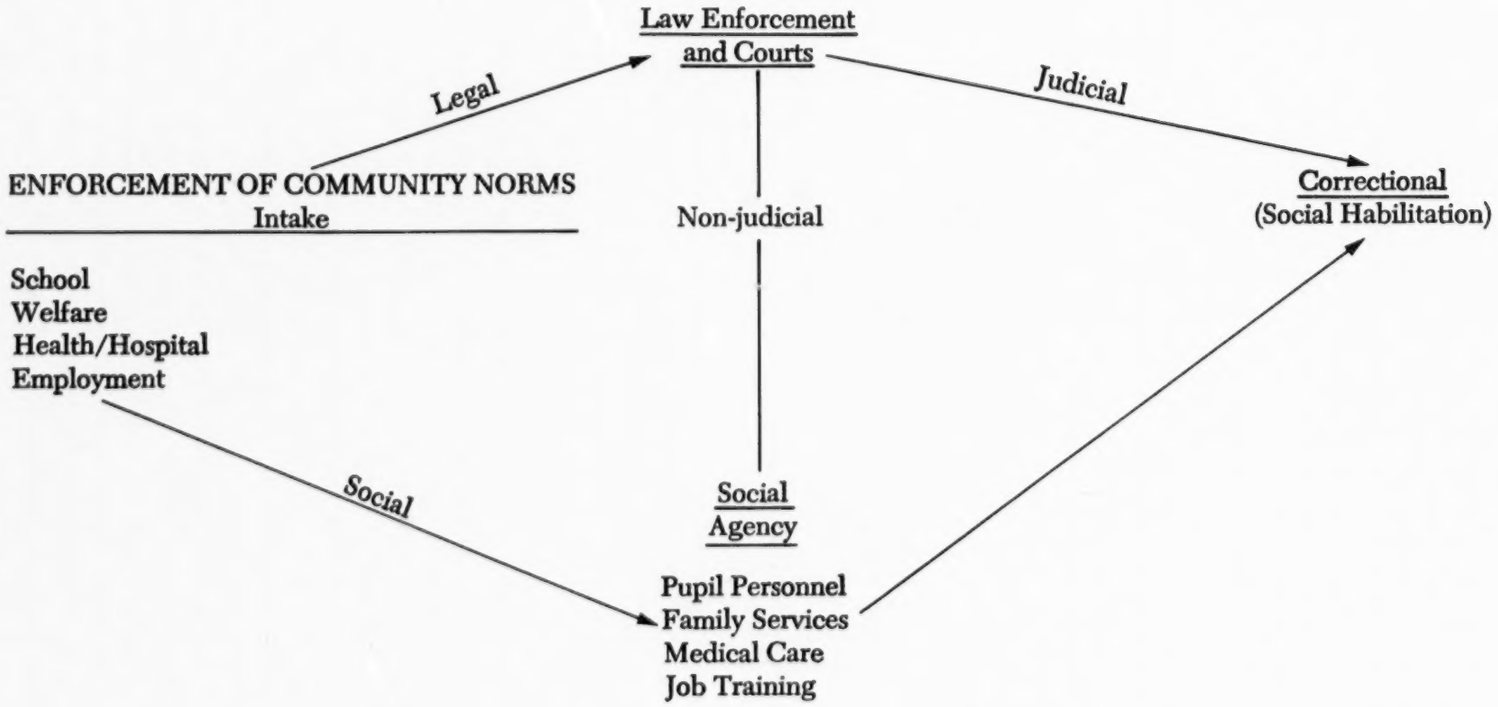
A similar conceptualization can be made for the field of social welfare as noted in Figure 2. In this system, the intake process can be conceptualized in part as enforcement of community norms through social intervention. In so doing, it has been argued, for example, that the poor are regulated[5] and social welfare personnel serve primarily as agents of social control.[6] By this we mean that an individual who becomes involved with the social welfare system has in some way deviated from societal norms and/or expectations. This deviation needs to be viewed broadly in terms of behavioral dysfunctioning and/or environmental causes as contributing factors. The intake process can be found primarily in the areas of the public schools, the public welfare departments, and the health care facilities. However, it is important to note that persons enter the social welfare system from many different points including referrals from neighbors, clergy and friends. Individuals who experience trouble in any one of these areas enter the social welfare system at the point of intake and can move through the system in one of two fashions. The first involves the legal route in which the individual is suspected of either being of harm to himself or others and therefore moves directly into the law enforcement or court arena. For an individual who does not fall into such a category, the intake process includes either preliminary treatment in the area of health, education or welfare or moves into more specialized social agencies which might include such units as Pupil Personnel in the school system, Family Services agencies in the community, Employment Service, or Specialized Medical Care facilities. Should the social service agency fail in meeting the needs of the individual, it then becomes necessary usually after adjudication in the courts to involve correctional facilities which may serve a social function of control and treatment for rehabilitation.

This brief overview of the systems of criminal justice and social welfare provides a beginning foundation for identifying linkages between both systems. The two domains which seem to be principally in common for both systems include the social agency and the correctional service. The social agency has served as the primary facility for treatment as well as for non-judicial intervention into the social dysfunctioning of an individual. The correctional facility has provided the back-up service for both systems in that individuals who either fail to respond to social agency intervention or have been adjudicated through the court system arrive at this facility for habilitation and in some cases control and punishment. It is the goal of both the social agency as well as the correctional facility to return the individual to acceptable functioning in the society.

In addition to the social agency and correctional facility, the area of law enforcement also shares some of its functions with the social welfare system. It is in the area of non-statutory intervention that the law enforce-

FIGURE II

SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICE DELIVERY SYSTEM



ment authorities are involved primarily in the functions of community relations. This aspect of police work has gained increased attention in recent years and has begun to cast the police function in a more accurate, acceptable role. The social agency is also involved with the areas of community relations and education and serves to interpret social standards in the same way as the law enforcement authorities interpret legal standards. Both are involved in the prevention and deterrence of social dysfunctioning among individuals, groups, and communities at large. At the same time both are involved in a form of detecting or case finding in which early signs of dysfunction are noted in order to prevent further deterioration of an individual's situation or of a community's condition.

It is clearly in the area of the courts that very little overlap takes place since the primary mission of the courts is to adjudicate the difference between legal guilt or innocence, with the possible exception of the juvenile court where there is still debate as to whether it is an adversary court or a social agency. A similar situation can be found in the social welfare area where similar specialized diagnosis takes place in a medical facility requiring specialized medical training. It is clear that the lawyer and the physician play important roles in both the criminal justice system and the social welfare system respectively.

Manpower Utilization

Both the systems of social welfare and criminal justice are currently undergoing critical review of the manner in which each system utilizes available manpower. In the system of criminal justice there is an attempt to upgrade existing personnel in all three areas of the courts, law enforcement and corrections. In the area of law enforcement, patrolmen are being encouraged to return to school and upgrade their skills in both the techniques of law enforcement as well as the social science components of interpersonal relations and community relations. The same might be said for the area of corrections in which correctional officers and superintendents are being encouraged to increase their level of education in order to provide more effective services to the individual. And in the area of courts, there is a growing recognition that the legal profession is not equipped to handle the management problems which have surfaced in recent years as a result of overloaded court dockets. As a result, there is a growing recognition and need for court managers to assume responsibility for managing all phases of court operations at the local, state, and national levels.

With regard to the system of social welfare there is a reverse trend taking place in which the professionals involved in health care, education, and welfare are recognizing the need for personnel with less training and fewer credentials to perform some of the basic functions of the system. This can be found in the health sector where nurses are assuming more and more medical functions and the new phenomenon of the medical assistant

(returning army corpsman) is gaining support. In the field of education similar changes can be found with the development of the teacher aide and the social service aide providing basic one-to-one assistance to the school pupil. And finally in the area of public welfare, there is a growing recognition that paraprofessional personnel can be and should be involved in the delivering of social services in both the areas of client eligibility as well as specialized client services.

It is evident in both the systems of criminal justice and social welfare that there is a growing recognition of differential use of manpower. While both are engaged in upgrading existing personnel, they are also concerned with expanding career opportunities and entry level positions in the system. In the criminal justice system, the entry level positions include those of patrolman, classification officer, and correctional officer. In the social welfare system, new positions are being developed and include such titles as case aide and rehabilitation technician. Both systems include entry level personnel also known as cottage parents and group treatment counselors. This level of personnel is receiving attention in our community colleges for both continuing education purposes as well as degree granting programs.

The management of services delivered in both systems has been carried out by mid-level personnel. In the case of the criminal justice system, positions include those of unit supervisor, experienced patrolmen, correctional supervisor, court administrative assistant, probation officer, and unit chief or supervisor. In the social welfare system, it is well known that both teachers and more recently, nurses provide the bulk of services delivered in our public schools as well as hospitals and health departments. In our social agencies, there are many different types of case managers who service the need of clients through skills in casework, group work, and neighborhood community organization.

There is a growing recognition in both systems that more personnel are needed at the management level with specialized skills in handling large organizations and/or client populations. In the criminal justice system, these positions include such roles as law enforcement executive, institutional superintendent, program supervisor, planner, researcher, agency administrator, and court administrator. In the social welfare system, new roles are being developed at the middle management level which include case supervisor, case consultant, agency trainer, planner, program evaluator, and agency administrator.

This overview of the current state of the art regarding manpower utilization provides a background, along with the current status of service delivery, to consider new and innovative educational plans which relate to both emerging systems of criminal justice and social welfare.

Educational Program Planning

As noted earlier, both systems of criminal justice and social welfare

share a common heritage and concern for the individual, the group, and the community. As noted in Figure 3, both systems draw upon the social and behavioral sciences for the training of their respective personnel since neither system has its own unique body of knowledge. This shared body of knowledge includes a historical perspective, a commonality of research methodologies, a similarity in skill development, and a commonality of behavioral explanations for deviant behavior.

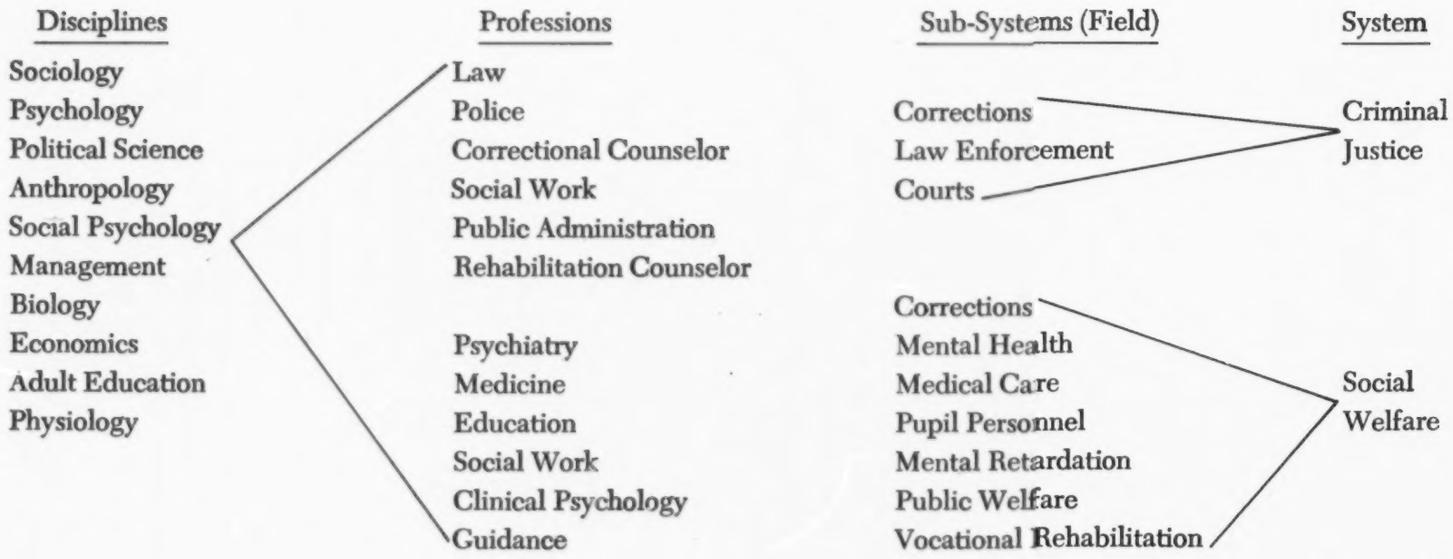
The primary areas of knowledge and skills seem to have significant overlap for both systems. Skills in interviewing and working with individuals, groups, and communities provide a part of the basis for training in both systems. Similarly, drawing upon sociology, psychology, public administration and other social sciences, each system utilizes the knowledge that has been developed to provide basic understandings for the behavior of individuals, groups, communities, and large scale organizations. As noted earlier, there is a common heritage between the two systems which goes back to early reform efforts in the late 1800's where there was a concern for differential treatment between those who had violated laws and those who had committed the sin of being poor. The early efforts of Dorothea Dix to separate the mentally ill from the law violators provides an early basis for understanding the evolution of policies and programs in this country. Similar understandings can be gained from studying the history of debtor's prisons and alms houses which were the forerunners of institutions in this country.

The area in which differences seem to be most apparent between the two systems is concerned with the question of values and attitudes. Personnel in both systems need to recognize and understand the concepts of social control and social reform. Simply looking at the front page of the daily newspaper indicates the growing awareness of the public as to the distinctions between these two concepts. The cry for welfare reform is as loud as the cry for prison reform. At the same time, there is a lingering feeling that with reform must come a continued emphasis on social control. Witness the recent efforts to control welfare overpayments and fraud at the same time as more money is being pumped into local police departments to upgrade the tools of law enforcement (hardware) to control criminal behavior.

There is increasing recognition in both systems that self-determination as a concept and societal determination as a concept play important roles. It is in the social welfare system that self-determination takes on a more prominent role as the rights and privileges of the individual behavior. In the criminal justice system, on the other hand, the felt needs of society as a whole or societal determination plays a more prominent role than the self-determination of the individual. In this case, personnel in the criminal justice system view their role in society as protecting the rights of the

FIGURE III

COMMON KNOWLEDGE BASE
FOR PROFESSIONS PRACTICING IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE
AND SOCIAL WELFARE SYSTEMS



individual and his property through the enforcement of laws determined by the society at large.

It is important to note, that both systems involve an understanding of the values of both the individual and the society. The social welfare system is involved with the enforcement of social standards while the criminal justice system is primarily involved with the enforcement of laws as developed by the representatives of the society. Traditionally, the criminal justice system has been more punishment oriented while recognizing the need for habilitation. In contrast, the social welfare system has been traditionally more habilitation oriented and has more recently come to recognize its role in social control.

From the perspective of service delivery, manpower utilization, and similar bodies of knowledge, it is now possible to suggest the several areas in which both systems overlap sufficiently in order to lead to common educational curriculum areas.

An Emerging Core Curriculum

As one analyzes many of the various job descriptions as currently conceived in both systems, it becomes readily apparent that there are some common core areas of education which can be provided at all levels of higher education. At the community college level there are two distinct roles as exemplified in the Associate of Arts or Science degrees. In the fields of criminal justice and social welfare, both have important places in preparing personnel. The essential difference between the two is the emphasis of courses in the specialized major field to be included in the program. For purposes of this general overview, all students, regardless of degree sought, or field or interests, should meet the general education or liberal arts requirements. In the arts sequence, designed for those transferring into a baccalaureate program, there should be a further emphasis on the behavioral and social sciences for students of both fields. Additionally, students of both systems ought to experience an internship which may vary from observing the various components of each system (police, courts, corrections, or hospitals, schools and welfare departments) to actual involvement with client populations at entry level positions such as patrolman, caseworker or correctional worker. Additionally, each system recognizes the need for specialized knowledge which should comprise the balance of the community college curriculum. This might comprise from one quarter of the work in the case of the Associate of Arts students to more in the case of the student pursuing the terminal Associate of Science degree. In the case of criminal justice, there is a growing recognition that this curricular area should include courses related to social control, social deviance and the institutions of the entire criminal justice system and the process by which they function.[7] In the social welfare system a similar need is seen

and takes the form of courses in interviewing, community resources, human behavior, and specialized activity and materials preparation.

At the baccalaureate level in both systems there is a need for generalists who are able to fill key positions which rely heavily on the processes of problem solving and decision making. In the case of criminal justice, these generalists should ideally have broad educational backgrounds as well as a broad range of experience in a variety of criminal justice agencies. With the social problem of crime singled out for attack, these generalists should be equipped to deal in the exchange of specialized information regarding the nature of social control, social deviance and the criminal justice system, institutions and processes. In addition to these system generalists, a wide range of specialists are needed such as lawyers, psychologists, social workers and social science research personnel, to mention only a few. Each of these specialists should have the same basic education required of others holding similar positions in other settings.[8]

The special curricular areas in criminal justice should relate to the sub-categories of knowledge which have been referred to earlier, i.e., social control, social deviance, and the institutions of the criminal justice system. Within the first of these areas, specialized course work might include informal social controls, concepts of class and caste, the origins of conflict and of conflict resolution and the relationships between law and culture. In dealing with social deviance, work might include basic theoretical frameworks dealing with deviance, preventive methods, and understanding human behavior. The last subcategory should include such courses as a survey of the criminal justice system; criminal law and procedures; introductory criminalistics; and the operation and philosophy of each system component.

Similarly, in the social welfare system, the generalist needs to have sufficient skill and background in order to function in a health, education, and/or welfare setting. Similar to the community college program, there is consensus around the need for strong liberal arts backgrounds for students at the baccalaureate level. There is also a need for an internship experience which can range again from basic observation of all components of the system to full-time involvement with the clients of the respective system. In the social welfare system specialized courses for the generalist include: Human Growth and Development, Interviewing, Methods of Intervention, Social Policies and Programs, Research, and specialized courses for particular populations (Aging, Alcoholism, Children, Juvenile Delinquency, Corrections, Racism, etc.). Additional attention more recently is being devoted to client advocacy and consumer law.

It becomes quite evident at the community college level and baccalaureate level that there are common behavioral sciences as well as specialized courses to both systems. A student of criminal justice and a student of social welfare can share in their understandings of such social problems as juvenile delinquency, alcoholism, drug abuse, school truancy, as well as social

science courses dealing with social deviance, social control, abnormal psychology, and cultural anthropology.

At the graduate level and particularly the master's degree, there is again overlap between the two systems as both attempt to train for specialists in their respective areas. In the criminal justice system, the student needs to have a firm foundation in the knowledge areas cited for the baccalaureate level as a minimum in such areas as: Public Administration, Research, and Planning for criminal justice as an entity. Similar observations can be made in the social welfare system where students need to have a firm grasp of the knowledge, attitudes, and skills outlined at the baccalaureate level as well as additional knowledge in the areas of Supervision, Consultation, Planning, Research, and Administration. Both systems are developing a growing expectation that master's level personnel will also be able to teach either on community college campuses and/or in agency in-service programs. Again it becomes clear at the graduate level that course content in Planning, Administration, Research, and Teaching might be shared by students of both systems. The commonalities in both knowledge and skill areas become even more apparent as one looks at the doctoral level education anticipated in both the systems of criminal justice and social welfare. At that level, personnel are expected to be skilled in Research and Administration as well as providing the necessary leadership in the educational arena.

It becomes obvious as one reviews the service delivery demands and the manpower utilization schemes in both systems of social welfare and criminal justice that the resulting educational programs which can be derived from both service and manpower needs indicate some commonalities of curriculum. While each system has specialized knowledge areas, it is important to also note that each system has some common areas of knowledge, skills, and values. The key to integrating both systems at points which appear to be most relevant will require creative leadership in the field where services are delivered as well as on the campus where educational programs are being designed to train personnel for the future needs of both systems. In the final analysis, it becomes increasingly evident that systems of criminal justice and social welfare are developing alongside one another as society demands both social control as well as social reform. It will take creative leadership in both systems to identify the points of linkage in order to better serve the American people.

NOTES

[1]Ramsey Clark, *Crime in America,* Pocket Books, New York, 1971.

[2]President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society,* Superintendent of Documents, Washington D. C., 1967.

[3]Richard D. Myren, *Education in Criminal Justice,* Coordinating Council for Higher Education, Council Report 70-5, September 1970, pp. II-1.

[4]Vernon Fox, "Dilemmas in Law Enforcement," *Police,* September-October 1964, pp. 70-1.

[5]Frances Piven and Richard Cloward, *Regulating the Poor: The Functions of Public Welfare,* Pantheon, New York, 1971.

[6]Elaine Cumming, *Systems of Social Regulation,* Atherton Press, New York, 1968.

[7]Donald H. Riddle, "The Emerging Field of Criminal Justice," *The Police Chief,* August 1970, pp. 18-20.

[8]Myren, pp. 11-12.

Juvenile Delinquency: New Methods of Service Delivery

Philip L. Smith and Michael J. Austin

In order to examine new approaches to dealing with juvenile delinquency, it is important to have some knowledge of the development of the juvenile justice system in America—its philosophies, its organization, its inconsistencies, and its controversies. Early in this country's history there was no distinction made between juvenile crime and adult crime. Courts of justice operated on the common law premise of England and America that children under the age of 14 were assumed incapable of committing crimes of a serious nature though on occasion older children were tried, convicted and sentenced to correctional institutions for committing serious felonies.[1] Shortcomings in this system for dealing with juvenile offenders prompted the establishment in 1924 of the first American institution for delinquent children in New York City—the New York House of Refuge. Several other large eastern cities followed suit and established similar institutions. These institutions were either private or municipal. It was not until 1847 that state institutions were opened in New York and Massachusetts.[2]

Although the first institutions for juvenile offenders had more of a rehabilitative focus than similar institutions for adults, the emphasis was generally on instruction and most institutions developed strict regimens with corporal punishment being administered rather freely, a situation not dissimilar to public education in that era. Children were often "put out

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on loan" to work on farms or in industry as this was thought to build good moral fiber not to mention the benefits of free labor for farmers and manufacturers. Most of the early institutions for juvenile offenders also accepted children who were destitute or orphaned with little differentiation made between the two groups. This is a heritage we have yet to outlive in many of the institutions in our juvenile justice system. Criminal courts used these early institutions for a dumping ground and many juveniles, both the dependent and the delinquent, found themselves institutionalized with parental power being held by the institution. This doctrine of "parens patriae" dominated the juvenile justice system in this country until the Kent and Gault decisions of 1966 and 1967.

The first juvenile court in America was established in 1899 in Illinois. Though the juvenile court relieved institutions of their parental powers, it in turn adopted the doctrine of "parens patriae." The Illinois Juvenile Court Act, for instance, did not require that the parent be notified of the court's proceedings.[3] This philosophy has been the subject of much controversy over the years. On the one hand the supporters of the nearly absolute powers of the juvenile court have maintained that the court must have great discretion if the best interests of children are to be served. As Jane Addams pointed out:

> "There was almost a change in mores when the Juvenile Court was established. The child was brought before the judge with no one to prosecute him and with no one to defend him—the judge and all concerned were merely trying to find out what could be done on his behalf."[4]

This position, of course, assumes an enlightened juvenile judiciary and an adequately trained court staff so that all facets of the child's situation can be examined and decisions made in his best interest.

Others have criticized this philosophy as being dangerous to the civil liberties of children, pointing out that many children have been sentenced to correctional institutions for "offenses" that do not even exist for adults or for longer sentences (sometimes indeterminate) for relatively minor offenses. The system of "individualized justice" praised by many can also become a system of "individualized injustice." As described by Roscoe Pound, "The powers of the Star Chamber were a trifle in comparison with those of our juvenile courts and courts of domestic relations."[5]

This controversy came to a head and was at least partially resolved in 1967 with the famous Gault decision. This decision enlarged on the warning given in the Kent decision against "procedural arbitrariness" by granting juveniles full protection of the law. The decision was decried by many as changing the nature of the juvenile court from a social agency to an advocacy court of law. It was welcomed by others as at long last guaranteeing juveniles equal protection. Regardless of one's interpretation, the Gault decision has forced a careful reexamination of the juvenile justice system in

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America and provided a partial impetus for developing programs designed to divert juveniles from the court system. This phenomenon has sharpened our focus on preventative programming—something we have long extolled but have done little about.

An Emphasis on Prevention

While today's focus is on prevention several comments on changes in institutional programming are indicated. In the juvenile justice system of today, as with the criminal justice system, there are three identifiable parts: 1) Enforcement, consisting primarily of law enforcement agencies but also of other enforcement agents such as schools, social agencies, and parents themselves; 2) Judiciary, consisting of the judicial arm of the juvenile court; 3) Corrections, consisting of institutional programs including detention centers and probation activities. In some states the juvenile court is responsible for juvenile probation and detention thus giving the court a dual function; while in other states, such as Florida, juvenile probation and detention are the responsibility of the state agency charged with responsibility for juvenile corrections.

In examining correctional programming for juveniles we see great disparities in the philosophy, quality, and organization of such programs nationwide. Some states still administer institutions for juvenile offenders through a state agency that controls all penitentiaries. Other states have established specialized youth service agencies. Some states still maintain large, isolated, inappropriately staffed penal institutions for juveniles, while others have moved toward innovative institutional programming through the establishment of community treatment facilities, halfway houses, and group homes. In some states juvenile institutions are staffed by untrained custodial personnel who do little more than act as prison guards. Other states have placed an emphasis on recruiting and training a variety of treatment personnel and have moved to implement new treatment programs, such as guided group interaction, in their institutions.

There is no question that we must continue to improve our institutional programs. As Richard Rachin points out, "We must begin to build upon the potential value of institutionalization (as part of the correctional spectrum) and work toward eliminating or avoiding its failings."[6] At the same time, however, we must work with discretion to divert youngsters from a system that, for the most part, is presently ill-equipped to effectively meet their needs. The monumental question of where responsibility rests for preventive programming must be answered.

As late as 1966* the HEW position on the role of the juvenile court in prevention is as follows: "The court should not be considered as an instrument in the field of primary prevention of delinquency and neglect."[7] They go on to say that primary prevention is the responsibility of community

*It should be noted that this was prior to the Gault decision.

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agencies and organizations, but that the court has the responsibility to support such efforts. This implies that the juvenile court should not take the lead or provide the impetus for developing such programs. In discussing the "myth of individualized treatment" Langley, Graves, and Norris suggest that the juvenile court must take the lead in advocating "basic changes of the social conditions in which youths live."[8] This certainly implies that the court should become an instrument of primary prevention. Just as the juvenile court should be involved in delinquency prevention, so should the other parts of the juvenile justice system. At the same time it is imperative for other community agencies, organizations, and citizenry to join forces with this system to develop and implement new programs in delinquency prevention.

The impetus exists nationwide for the creation of new delinquency prevention programs. The Report of the President's Commission on Crime in the District of Columbia (1966) states:

> "Once a juvenile is apprehended by the police and referred to the Juvenile Court, the community has already failed; subsequent rehabilitation services, no matter how skilled, have far less potential for success than if they had been applied before the youth's overt defiance of the law."[9]

The Task Force on Juvenile Delinquency of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice emphasizes the need for more preventive programs. It also pleads for a greater understanding of the phenomenon of juvenile delinquency within the context of the juvenile's total environment, emphasizing the contributory effect of the ghetto environment, family disorganization, irrelevant academic experiences, and the lack of employment opportunities.[10]

Designing Service Delivery Systems

With national concern high and funding sources available through the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, and other agencies, notable preventive programs have been developed across the country. The National Council on Crime and Delinquency recently issued a report of five new and innovative programs in delinquency prevention. They describe the local community approach through the creation of the Youth Service Bureau as taking five organizational forms or models:

1) *A cooperating agencies model,* in which several community agencies each donate the full-time paid services of one worker to the Youth Service Bureau. Working as a team with a coordinator, these workers accept individual referrals and involve citizens, youth, and professionals in solving problems related to acting-out behavior in youngsters.

2) *A community organization model,* in which neighborhood citizens, under the direction of a coordinator, mobilize to form a board, develop services, and meet crises as circumstances in the neighborhood indicate urgency.
3) *A citizen action model,* in which the YSB citizen committee has many subcommittees active in developing a great variety of youth services, while staff receive direct referrals and use case conference techniques and community resources to resolve individual problems. (This program originated in Pontiac, Michigan, where it has been in operation over 10 years.)
4) *A street outreach model,* which grew out of the New York City Youth Board and uses storefront neighborhood service centers as bases for therapeutic group activities including administration of the Neighborhood Youth Corps.
5) *A systems modification model,* which focuses on helping schools, institutions, programs, agencies, etc., become more sensitive and responsive to the needs of young people and thus contribute less to their behavior problems. Demonstration projects encourage new approaches to old problems, diverting offenders into positive, community-based efforts.[12]

Building a New Program

Project Somebody, described in detail in Sections 5, 7, and 8 of this monograph, was designed as a storefront operation in delinquency prevention to serve as a research project in new ways to train and utilize manpower. In its initial phase it was entirely staffed by students. It has since been approved for a grant by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration and will be operated by the Tallahassee Urban League as a Youth Development Center. It will be staffed by personnel from the Urban League, a local law enforcement agency, the State Division of Youth Services, and the County School Board. In addition it will serve as a field training site for two universities and one community college, with a field instructor being provided by one of the universities. It is hoped that eventually additional personnel will be brought in from other local and state agencies.

If you examine this Youth Development Center in light of the models described by the National Council on Crime and Delinquency you find a blend of all five of these models. It partially embodies the cooperating agencies model since it will utilize personnel donated by several community agencies. It was developed along the lines of the community organization model since an advisory board was developed comprised of neighborhood citizens to suggest program direction. It approximates the citizen action model in that various subcommittees involving citizens of the community were created to develop various service programs. It has

characteristics of the street outreach model since it is located in a storefront neighborhood center and does not depend on referrals for its clientele. Finally it is also partially a systems modification model since one primary objective of the program is to assist community agencies and organizations in developing a greater sensitivity to the problems and needs of the young.

Multiservice Center Approach

The Youth Development Center presents a new approach to service delivery in delinquency prevention that is partially patterned on the multiservice center approach. It represents an attempt to combine the services of several different agencies under one roof in order to provide a more comprehensive service program to a larger clientele.

The multiservice center approach is not a new idea and has existed in a variety of forms in various places for a number of years. Meager attempts have taken place in years past to accommodate the concept in one form or another. The social service exchange or clearinghouse notion is one example. It was not, however, until sufficient impetus (including sufficient funding) developed at the federal level through four major departments or offices* that the prototype of what has come to be known as the comprehensive service center or multiservice center was developed.

As an example, let us look at the multiservice center approach that developed at the federal level through the Fourteen Cities Demonstration Program. With massive federal funding the four previously mentioned federal agencies, through regional and state counterparts, moved to create service complexes to offer "total services" in community-based centers. These centers, which euphamistically came to be known as "service supermarkets," rendered services which included a variety of health care services, welfare services, employment services, transportation services, child care services, and even delinquency prevention services.

Administration of the multiservice center was grounded at the federal level though there was a proliferation of decision-making at the federal, regional, state and local levels relative to program organization, service delivery and staffing patterns. Major decisions were primarily made at the federal level and ultimately filtered down to the local level through regional and state counterparts. This multi-level administrative structure was sometimes an inhibiting factor to the coordination of services at the local level since conflicting expectation often existed among the four levels. It is important to note that ultimately the success of the service programs offered depended upon how well local counterparts were able to coordinate and manage services.

One of the overriding reasons for developing multiservice centers was to prevent, to the greatest possible degree, the tendency for clients

*Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Department of Labor; Department of Housing and Urban Development; Office of Economic Opportunity.

of various service agencies to become lost "in-transit" between programs. While the multiservice center has gone a long way toward remedying this situation, a similar one has emerged. As massive service complexes were developed clients tended to become lost "in-house" rather than "in-transit." The large service complex at times tended to overwhelm the client with the array of services presented. In some cases this was prevented through the assignment of an agent of primary responsibility to every individual or family served by the center.

While the multiservice center approach has resulted in some services, more effectively coordinated and delivered to a greater number of people, several shortcomings have been apparent. Organizationally, participating agencies have often viewed themselves as outstations of existing services. Therefore, there has been a tendency for these agencies to focus specifically on their service programs instead of on client problems or need. Clients still tend to be defined and routed in terms of services available instead of in terms of problem areas. For this reason the full potential of the "one program" notion of the multiservice center has never been fully realized.

In viewing the organizational implications of the Youth Development Center within the context of the multiservice center approach several observations can be made. The Youth Development Center embraces the philosophy of the multiservice center approach in that it is an attempt to provide more community-based services to a greater population through the coordinated use of multi-agency resources and expertise. However, in comparing the Youth Development Center to the prototype of the multiservice center that developed under such programs as the Fourteen Cities Demonstration several differences can be observed. The Youth Development Center is not nearly as large in terms of personnel, facilities, funding, and services provided. This may be, in fact, one of the more positive aspects of the program since the tendency to overwhelm the client with services does not exist. On the contrary, more personalized services can be provided. The Youth Development Center was developed initially at the local level. Though federally funded, administration and primary decision-making is grounded in the community. The rationale used in its development was to project and establish a service program and then look for appropriate funding sources. Finally, the Youth Development Center is problem-focused as opposed to being service-focused. Services to clients are defined relative to their problems and not in terms of the existing array of programs available. This represents the creation of new services subject to alteration and revision as opposed to transplanting existing services in new locales. Multi-agency resources are brought to bear on a specific problem area rather than attempting to fit clientele into an array of pre-existing services.

In addition to analyzing service delivery approaches from the top down

(national) and from the bottom up (local), it is important to note the related curriculum implications. As future employees in emerging service delivery systems, students will need to learn new knowledge and skills to function effectively as implementors of new services and as change agents in redesigning existing services.

Curricular Implications

When looking at the redesign of service delivery systems, there are many curricular implications. Changes in service programming involve both the redefinition of service in terms of bringing services to clients as well as incorporating new types of manpower in the staffing pattern. The recent interest in the utilization of paraprofessionals is but one example.

Project Somebody was designed to not only develop a consortium for training but also a consortium for service. The field consortium model provides a basis upon which experimentation can take place in redesigning services as well as redesigning education. In recent years there has been a growing interest in developing a consortium of agencies for the purposes of training students at different levels of education. At the same time there has been a growing interest in building a consortium of agencies for the purposes of improving services to clients. The attempt in this monograph has been to demonstrate that rarely do we find both consortium ideas manifested in one setting.

While several educational programs across the country have experimented in the development of field consortium training, most of the programs have been involved with expanding the students' understanding of different client problems in different agency settings. Rarely have these new field instruction experiments involved students in the actual problems of service delivery. While students may be involved with clients in several agencies, they are rarely involved at the management level in either integrating existing services or experimenting with the translation of one type of service in one agency into another agency. For example, students who work in youth-serving agencies rarely have the opportunity to transpose a youth program into a hospital setting where they also might be responsible for client services.

Research and Demonstration Strategy

This monograph also represents a social planning approach in which research and demonstration is the primary strategy for both agency change and educational reform. By example there has been an attempt to demonstrate the merits of utilizing a student field work unit as a research and demonstration program for a traditional agency. It is suggested that student units in many different agency settings might be utilized in similar fashion. If we are to approach the training of students in terms of exploring and defining new work roles, then it is important to provide students with

such a learning opportunity in a new agency setting so that we do not simply teach students to fit into traditional work roles.

The research and demonstration strategy also serves the needs of an agency for experimentation. Agencies need the opportunity to continuously experiment with service delivery in search of improving the quantity and quality of services to clients. The literature in social planning includes many examples in which a research and demonstration project has served as a major impetus for providing the needed directions for agency program change.[12]

The research and demonstration strategy for Project Somebody included many experiments. Further assessment was needed of the service team concept and in particular the roles assumed by workers who represent different levels of education. There is a continuing need to explore the relationship between educational background and on-the-job worker performance. Additional research and experimentation is needed in the area of differential use of manpower. For example, how can we validate new roles as data for revising job descriptions? The need for redesigning jobs is crucial in a rapidly changing society where new technology is being developed daily. What do we want our workers to be able to do? How can we more adequately evaluate worker performance? These are some of the questions which require answers in the area of personnel planning and can only surface through careful analysis of worker performance and expectations.

In addition, this monograph highlights the important area of corrections and the system of criminal justice which today require the attention of human service workers at all levels. The growing interest in law enforcement signals a unique opportunity for the human service profession to share experiences in the area of delinquency prevention and institutional treatment reform. Social service personnel can lend their experience and convictions in the area of prison reform and treatment approaches. It is important to make our knowledge available and our voices heard.

While there are many conclusions that can be drawn from this monograph, it is important to highlight the future role of research and demonstration. It is recommended that all social service agencies, whether at the state or local level, develop administrative structures that allow for a research and demonstration unit in the settings most closely related to client services. Each agency, particularly at the local level, should have the opportunity to experiment with new approaches to service delivery and manpower utilization. At the same time, research and demonstration units should exist within the training programs of our colleges and universities. Continuous evaluation of training approaches is needed if we are to adequately prepare students for change.

Future educational and manpower planning must take into account the need for an educational continuum in the human service fields from

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the high school level to the graduate level and at the same time a career lattice in our agencies which will allow workers to move up the career ladder through both academic preparation and agency staff development programs. Educational planning and manpower planning require the continued dialogue between educators and agency personnel.

NOTES

[1]Robert M. Mennel, "Origin of the Juvenile Court: Changing Perspectives on the Legal Rights of Juvenile Delinquents," *Crime and Delinquency,* Vol. 18, No. 1, January, 1972.

[2]*Ibid.*

[3] *Standards for Juvenile and Family Courts,* Washington: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1966.

[4]Mennel, *op. cit.*

[5]*Standards for Juvenile and Family Courts, op. cit.*

[6]Richard L. Rachin, "The Message Corrections Must Get Across," Reprinted from *Federal Probation,* June, 1970.

[7]*Standards for Juvenile and Family Courts, op. cit.*

[8]Michael H. Langley, H. Ray Graves, and Betty Norris, "The Juvenile Court and Individualized Treatment," *Crime and Delinquency,* Vol. 18, No. 1, January, 1972.

[9]*Task Force Report: Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime,* Washington: The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967.

[10]*Ibid.*

[11]Sherwood Norman, *The Youth Service Bureau,* New York: National Council on Crime Delinquency, June, 1970.

[12]George Brager, "Influencing Institutional Change Through a Demonstration Project: The Case of the Schools," in Ralph Kramer and Harry Specht (eds.), *Readings in Community Organization Practice,* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1969.

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